

The Nation

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The Week

When the historian who leaves nothing out comes to write the full account of the passage of the currency bill, he will not omit reference to the influence of the Christmas spirit. Congress was as eager as a small boy to get off for the holidays; and there stood the cruel resolution of the Democratic majority not to adjourn unless the bill was passed. This undoubtedly had the effect of hastening final action. The drawing near of the gracious Christmastide seemed to calm the savage breast of the filibuster, and to still the passions of the makers of long speeches. It was rumored that Senator La Follette would insist upon speaking for two or three days; and one can imagine the apprehensive looks that were cast in his direction. But he let his music die within him. Even he could hardly have faced the universal rage that would have fallen upon him if he had ruined the Congressional vacation over the holidays. The whole thing was a wonderful demonstration of what Christmas can do in the sphere of legislation. It was the old miracle over again:

No voice or hideous hum
Runs through the archèd roof.

Senatorial eloquence dried up, obstruction laid down its weapons, and Congress and the country seized their Milton and echoed:

—at last our bliss
Full and perfect is.

It has been understood from the beginning of the Wilson Administration that nothing would be done about the question of Panama tolls until after the tariff and currency bills were out of the way. That was in line with the "single-track" idea. It may, therefore, be more than a coincidence that on the very day the currency bill became law, Representative Adamson, Chairman of the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce, introduced a joint resolution proposing a way out of the difficulty. The plan is to suspend for two years the provision of the Panama act making the Canal free to American coastwise

vessels. This is the clause which England maintained, and which it is hard to deny, was in violation of our treaty with her. There is also the question whether the Canal can be made anywhere near self-supporting if tolls are not paid by all ships using it. Now, Mr. Adamson argues with much plausibility that his proposal will accomplish two things at once: it will give time for a test of the revenues of the Canal in relation to expenses; and it will also give time for the necessary diplomatic arrangements if we are finally to adopt the policy of free tolls for our coastwise vessels.

There are reports of a change in the Administration's attitude concerning the retention in the diplomatic service of Ministers whose training and experience make the continuance of their employment an obvious requirement of sound public policy. Failure to recognize this principle hitherto has been one of the chief sources of criticism of the Administration on the part of fair-minded observers. The report that a better course is now to be pursued derives confirmation not only from the apparent certainty of the retention of Henry P. Fletcher as our Minister to Chili, and the indicated probability of the continuance of John W. Garrett in Argentina and Edwin V. Morgan in Brazil, but also from the unquestionable fact that President Wilson's own convictions and proclivities must lie entirely in that direction. While he cannot disclaim responsibility for what has thus far happened, it can fairly be pleaded for him, if not by him, that the overshadowing importance of the two great legislative projects which he has just brought to consummation must naturally have absorbed his attention to the exclusion of many matters which, in an ordinary time, would have enlisted his keen interest. It is to be hoped that from now on nothing will be done to encourage the spoils conception of the diplomatic service.

Georgia's response to the proposed reduction of Southern delegates in Republican Conventions is as gracious as it is prompt. If we may trust the Na-

tional Committeeman from that State, the Central Committee will be called together soon after the holidays, and will approve the recommendation cutting Georgia's delegation from twenty-eight to eighteen. Mr. Jackson does say, for home consumption, presumably, that the action of the National Committee is not entirely fair to the Republican party in the South. But he makes another remark that is much closer to the point. "However," he says, "I believe the plan will operate to strengthen Republicanism in the South. It will have a tendency to encourage voters to turn out at elections." He has in mind, of course, the provision that Congressional districts in which the party polls 7,500 votes or more shall be entitled to an additional delegate.

Progressive irreconcilables should keep a sharp eye upon Kansas. A year ago the Progressives were in control of the Republican party machinery, and accordingly there was no "Progressive" State ticket. The "Republican" nominee for Governor, Arthur Capper, lacked only thirty votes of being elected. Now he is hesitating between announcing himself as a candidate for the Progressive nomination for Governor and entering the race for the Republican nomination. And he is getting encouragement in this dubious position by no less an authority than William Allen White! A Progressive who writes to the *Emporia Gazette* to ask why Capper does not decide one way or the other is gently told that "often people who lack imagination cannot put themselves in the place of others. . . . Mr. Capper is in the position of a child of divorced parents who loves them both and is loved by both." Then comes this shocking explanation:

He is not hesitating because he is afraid of himself. Whatever hesitancy he manifests is due to the fact that he is in a position where a man may not say it is all black and white on one side or the other, and where a sudden decision, a hasty or impulsive act, might do incalculable harm to the best interests of Kansas.

Or of Capper? But why cannot he say that it is all black on the Republican side and all white on the Progressive side? It is, isn't it? While the *Gazette* would like to see Mr. Capper declare

himself a Progressive, it "also realizes the immense pull of the mere party name on entirely honest people," and so it asks patience for Mr. Capper while he makes up his mind. But what would the Colonel say of a man who could even think of accepting a Republican nomination after July 19, 1912, and before January 1, 1916?

"Probably the greatest factor in retarding the development of scientific research among our industries has been high tariff." This is not the guess of a politician, but the verdict of a trade paper, the *Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry*. "This high tariff," it continues, "has caused many of our industries to prosper and pay enormous profits in spite of their short-sighted management. Political research, with a view to exploiting the consumer, is well understood by such managers, and it is a regrettable fact that many of them have spent thousands of dollars on the lobby and not one cent for placing their business on a sound scientific footing." This is not a new contention. It is part of what President Wilson means by "freeing" the American manufacturer and dealer. In this view, lower prices are not the only end of tariff reduction. The main thing is the elimination of the artificial conditions that, under exorbitant rates, have surrounded our industrial processes, which, in consequence, may receive a kind of attention hitherto denied them. Not new "talking points," but better quality, becomes the aim of the man seeking a market. Incidentally, in the opinion of the *Journal*, "the loss of this tariff protection will, in the end, exert a great stabilizing influence on our industrial development."

"Efficient" is the word most commonly used to describe the kind of administration that New York expects from its new Mayor. Because he himself made his reputation as Commissioner of Accounts, and because one of the men he seems certain to put into office is another notable exponent of the new science of statistics as applied to municipal government, one is apt to gather that the city's high expectations for the next four years are based primarily on the efficiency of systematization, correlation, bookkeeping, card catalogues,

and the like. Yet there is one factor in governmental efficiency which seems to have been overlooked in the passionate discussion of administrative methodology, and that is the antique virtue of simple honesty. If the average citizen looks forward to four years of efficient government by Messrs. Mitchel, Prendergast, McAneny, and their borough associates, it is primarily because the average citizen is convinced that these men are honest. There is no need to disparage training and method in the conduct of municipal affairs, but the motive behind the method is of paramount importance. German municipal government has reached its high state of efficiency because Germans employ experts to rule their cities. But Great Britain, which is not in the habit of going in for scientific experimentation and prefers to move forward along old lines, has also developed efficient municipal government, for the simple reason that it has developed honest municipal government.

Whether the situation at Calumet is such as to call for an investigation by Congress or not, it is certainly one that is of most serious interest to the nation. The Governor of Michigan owes it not only to his office and to the people of his State, but to the people of the whole country, to get at the full and exact truth, and to get at it promptly. The terrible Christmas tragedy, the accusations that arose out of it, and the attack on Moyer, coming on top of a situation already intensely embittered, make a combination full of sinister possibilities. The story of Lawrence offers a clear enough demonstration of the seriousness of such a trouble as this, and the way in which it contributes to aggravate labor troubles in other parts of the country; and this Calumet case has in it elements of far greater potential mischief than did the Lawrence case. Justice and expediency alike demand that it be taken hold of at once with the utmost vigor.

Secretary Lane's proposal to "conserve" deposits of radium is an illustration of the unexpected ramifications which a new policy is likely to develop. A very few years ago, conservation meant trees, water, coal, and the like. In a day it has come to mean radium.

The principle once accepted, we are not greatly surprised at the finding of new objects to which it may be applied. One element in Secretary Lane's proposal is novel. He asks for authority, not only for the President to reserve to the Government all rights in radium-bearing ores on public lands, but also for the Secretary of the Interior to proceed with the mining and treating of these ores in such a way as to obtain a supply of radium for the use of the Government and for hospitals throughout the country. To this kind of Government operation of industry no objection will be raised.

Arkansas's new application of the local option principle, now upheld by the State Supreme Court, virtually disfranchises the negro upon the liquor question. Instead of providing for wiping out saloons by a majority of the voters in any locality, it forbids any municipality or township to license a drinking-place except upon petition signed by a majority of the adult *white* residents. The bill was passed by the efforts of the anti-saloon forces, and had the usual avowed Southern motive of keeping liquor from the black population. Approval of the ends sought can hardly extend to the means employed, especially in a State which increasingly recognizes the colored vote, and which has hitherto resisted a "grandfather clause." There seems no warrant for vesting control over saloons in an artificially restricted portion of the population. The liquor interests, however, declare that they will not carry the matter to the United States Supreme Court, as this would involve too many delays. This implies that other means will be sought to bring the whole plan to a final test of legality.

The high moral purpose behind the exhibition of the "white-slave" films, which has now been brought to an end in this city, is revealed in the remark made by the impresario of one of these enterprises to the effect that he was busy taking in the money while the going was good. It is easy to declaim against police censorship in this matter of white-slave exploitation in the theatre or on the canvas screen. But what, after all, is police censorship as it has been employed? There is no question

here of allowing the policeman to decide whether a certain exhibition is to be tolerated or not. There has been no attempt on the part of Mr. Waldo or his subordinates to impose their arbitrary will on the managers of these enterprises. The matter has been tried out in the courts and the decision against the films is not a police decision, but a judicial decision. In a broad sense, there is, of course, a censorship by the police, and it is exercised upon the citizen in every walk of life. There is a police censorship on crime and on public nuisances. In a still broader sense, the "police" power of the State is invoked by Legislatures and courts when it comes to any form of regulation in the interests of the public welfare. The citizen who complains to the police of a nauseating "moral" exhibition is like the citizen who would complain to the police of a soap factory next door. The police are the primary agents whom the community calls in to bring a public nuisance before the attention of the courts. With public opinion against them, the police cannot destroy the liberties of the citizen; and what other tribunal can the moral crusaders ask for?

Can't somebody do something, at this happy season, to cheer up Col. Harvey? He is having a terribly doleful time in the *North American Review* over the sins and shortcomings of President Wilson. Trouble, trouble, and nothing but trouble does he see—the Constitution "subverted," foreign relations in a parlous state, business depression already upon the country, and political defeat for the Democratic party impending. We can't be sure what is the matter with Col. Harvey, but we have an idea that he has lost his old strong grip on his theology. When one recalls the triumphant way in which, only a few short years ago, he was making it out that Wilson was foreordained, before the foundation of the world, to be President of the United States, it does seem as if it might do the Colonel good, in this hour when his countenance has fallen and his spirit is cast down within him, if he would only reach out and take a stiff dose of his favorite old family medicine, predestination.

We read that Dean C. Worcester, ex-Secretary of the Interior in the Philip-

pine Government, is a great admirer of the Moros; and not, as one would suppose, because the Moro with his kree and his faculty for running amuck constitutes one of the favorite arguments against granting self-government to the Filipinos. The head-hunter and the Moro have never failed to be trotted out as proof that the removal of American rule would mean the handing over of the peaceful population of the islands to rapine and murder. But now we read that Mr. Worcester

believes that, if properly governed through men who know them and sympathize with them, some day they may be made law-abiding and self-respecting citizens of the Philippines.

Does this mean that the Mindanao datus on the rampage can expect more sympathy from the present white masters of the islands than he would receive from the Filipinos themselves? Or does the sympathetic treatment the Moro needs take the form of being civilized with a Krag? In either case, a native Government at Manila ought to be equal to the task. Mr. Shuster, in his admirable article in the *Century*, points out the shallowness of the Moro argument. A Filipino gunboat, equipped with a few rapid-firers, would be enough to protect the people of Luzon against murderous invasion.

The British Cabinet's decision against official participation by England in the Panama fair is condemned by the Liberal press and defended, so far as it is defended at all, by Conservative newspapers. This has been the usual fate of Mr. Asquith's foreign policies. The bitterest criticism against Sir Edward Grey's policy in the Near and Middle East has come from supporters of the Ministry, and the Tory London *Times* was for a time regarded as the spokesman for Sir Edward. In the matter of the fair the severest indictment against the Government has been formulated by the Radical *Chronicle*, which points out with undeniable force the absurdity of the plea that the British treasury cannot afford the sum of half a million dollars towards an act of international courtesy whose effect on Anglo-American relations could hardly fail to be beneficial. Conceding the point that England has a justifiable grievance against us over the question of Panama tolls, it needs no special acumen to see that an

attitude of sulky resentment is not likely to bring this country to terms.

Mr. Andrew Furuseth's resignation in a huff from the London Conference on Ocean Safety so confirms his stamp of radicalism that it will inevitably damage his position upon the Seamen's bill. The House will be more inclined than ever to hear arguments *pro* and *con* upon a measure which could thus lead him to a sharp split with an international and impartial body. President Wilson has already expressed a wish that action in Congress may await the recommendations of the Conference on matters pertinent to the bill. That this be done is highly desirable, for repeated protests from foreign and native shipowners have left no doubt that the bill requires amendment. Its provisions for the protection of crews are now generally acquiesced in, but certain clauses relating to the safety of passengers are held exaggerated and unreasonably drastic. The report of the Conference is not likely to err on the side of laxity; it will be expert in every sense of the word; and a rational willingness to be guided by it will not merely support the general movement for international uniformity in regulations upon transoceanic traffic, but relieve the bill of the charge that it now violates certain treaty obligations.

On his recent visit to London, Anatole France was taken just once to the theatre. And what does the reader suppose was the play by which the cultivated Frenchman was to get his idea of the present state of the English drama? Why, it was "Joseph and His Brethren"! Why not? It was given at Sir Herbert Tree's theatre, it has run for nobody can recall how many months, so why not invite the supreme ironist of France to soothe his spirit at this tedious spectacle, and from it carry back an impression of the present ideals and achievements of the stage in England? Doubtless, M. France is too shrewd a man to be deceived by this stroke of English hospitality. He probably knows that his experience was very like what it would be to ask Edmund Gosse in Paris to pass by the Comédie and the Châtelet and go over the river to the Théâtre Cluny to judge of what the French are doing in the dramatic art.

THE BLOOD-AND-IRON FALLACY.

A valued correspondent, with good knowledge of conditions in Mexico, writes to ask why the *Nation* does not urge the Government at Washington to stop the "atrocities" in Mexico. What he refers to is the slaughter of Mexicans by Mexicans. His estimate is—and we fear that it is not exaggerated—that 30,000 Mexicans have been killed since last February: some of them soldiers slain in battle; more of them shot in cold blood after capture or surrender; with a great many non-combatants. The thought of it all is, indeed, shocking; but two reflections come with it. The first is that no one can suggest a way in which Americans could bring to an end these atrocities without causing more horrible ones. In case of armed intervention by us, the tale of deaths would run far beyond 30,000. And the second reflection is that it is folly to think of terrifying into submission, by means of fire and sword, a people accustomed to such ruthless methods as are now practiced in Mexico. It is an awful habit they have, but it is inveterate, of shooting unarmed prisoners in times of civil war. This they inherited with their Spanish blood. Carranza as coolly proposes to "execute" the adherents of Huerta as Huerta proclaims his intention of exterminating all who take up arms against him. And it is a nation habituated to such ferocities that it is said the United States should bring to terms by being more ferocious than itself!

We have been told, till everybody is sick of it, that Mexico's great need is for a "strong man." Usually, this has meant a ruthless man. With much wise head-wagging, stories are repeated of the swift brutality which Porfirio Diaz used to practice. That is the true prescription for Mexico to-day, we are assured. Send out a detachment of troops with orders to shoot every sixth person in a district where trouble is reported. Kill first and find out the truth afterwards. Diaz did it, and see how he kept the country in order. That's the only way in which these Mexicans can be made to behave. But this is to forget that the Diaz system of ferocity broke down. As Professor Hart writes in *World's Work*, Diaz, "like most despots, discovered that, no matter how many heads were cut off, men with tongues

will still arise. The strong man in the end was weaker than his people."

Right here let it be remarked that the demand for a "strong man" in Mexico is made chiefly by foreigners. The Mexican correspondent of the *London Times* notes that this demand "comes glibly from the lips of nearly all British and American residents in the country." And their reasons for wanting a strong ruler are obvious and, to an extent, legitimate. They have great investments in Mexico, which they would have protected. Their lives and the lives of those dependent upon them, they would have safeguarded. This is natural and lawful enough; the trouble arises only when they translate strong man into a ruthless despot. Now, it is the deliberate opinion of the well-informed correspondent referred to that Mexico has passed the stage where a ruthless dictator, dealing out death and destruction, can possibly succeed. Diaz proved this to be true. "No one can govern the country again as he did." Huerta is proving it to be true. How can you frighten men into yielding who face the firing-squad without flinching and die with their last defiant word, "Viva Mexico"? This writer in the *London Times* declares that the idea that the Mexicans need an iron-handed despot is a complete mistake. An able ruler, yes, but never again simply a military ruler knowing no argument but that of pike and gun. "The notion that the Mexicans need merely a despot betrays failure to understand either them or human nature. They are not fully grown up yet. But they are no longer children."

Evidence is, in fact, accumulating on every hand that the flame lit by Francisco Madero cannot be extinguished by blood. Only last week, one Mexican in the very capital had the courage to stand up and tell Gen. Huerta to his face—after others had flattered him—that mere force was no remedy for Mexico's ills, and that the Dictator must seriously consider doing something to meet the demands of the growingly intelligent middle classes. What Señor Urrutia had the boldness to say is unquestionably the thought of many hearts in Mexico, as is borne out by the testimony of sympathetic observers. It is a terrible welter through which Mexico is now passing, and the end of it no man

can foresee. But some antecedent and harmful fallacies are at least disposed of. The greatest of them is the assumption that a people which has withstood the worst that native ferocity could do would meekly submit if foreigners began to shoot and burn and ravage. And twin with this folly is that of supposing that if the United States had only sharpened the edge of Huerta's sword, he would by this time have made Mexico a land of smiling content.

THAT "ALLIANCE" AGAINST US.

Several Washington correspondents have made the simultaneous discovery that "Germany and Great Britain have entered into an offensive and defensive commercial alliance against the United States." At last news, Germany and England were about to go to war with each other. But, it seems, they have dropped all that in order to think about trade; and their first move, as traders, is to put their heads together in a plot to harm their best customer. We thus put the essential absurdity of the story in a condensed form, not in the hope of destroying belief in it. Such yarns have more lives than a cat. They turn up from time to time, and always find audience among the credulous. Why this revival should have taken place just now it is hard to say. One reason may be the dearth of topics for Washington correspondents during the holiday recess! Another is seen in the admitted fact that the National City Bank of New York has been contemplating the establishment of a branch in Buenos Ayres, but has given it up for the time being. This is gravely cited as clear proof of a conspiracy, on the part of British and German interests, to check American enterprise abroad wherever it threatens competition with them.

It might be thought that the plain tale of the president of the National City Bank would put down these retailers of big stories about Englishmen and Germans in buckram. Mr. Vanderlip explains that his institution had, indeed, made inquiries preliminary to considering a plan of opening a branch in Argentina, as it is authorized to do under the new banking and currency law. But the project had not been pushed, because it appeared that the time was not ripe for it, either in South America or in this country. It was added by Mr.

Vanderlip that there would be great difficulty in finding Americans able and willing to go and manage such an important enterprise at Buenos Ayres. We have very few men capable of doing the work, and they would not wish to expatriate themselves indefinitely. This, points out the president of the City National, is "a weakness in our system." England and Germany have an abundance of men trained for foreign service. We have scarcely any. But does not that merely show that the "alliance" has been getting in its deadly work in advance? So must think the Washington detectives, for they declare that, "despite the denial made by President Vanderlip," we should have had a flourishing bank at the River Plate by this time, had not our efforts been thwarted by the sinister influence of British and German interests.

This sort of thing crops up whenever there is talk, as there is now, of making new efforts to extend American commerce and financial facilities and prestige abroad. We do not make as rapid progress as we think we ought to make, and then, asserting that the fault cannot be in ourselves, we look about for the machinations of some foreign rival. We have been doing this for many years, and shall doubtless continue to do so until we learn that the thing to search for in foreign competitors is, not mysterious plots, but the plodding methods of success. On this very point of branch banks in other countries, the address of the president of the United States Steel Corporation at Chicago, at the annual meeting of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, had a pertinent passage. Mr. Farrell had no doubt that American banking institutions would gradually find their way into foreign countries, but they would first have to master the new business. Asserted President Farrell:

The early history of German banks in Latin America and the Far East was one of continued failure, and it was only after they had solved the problem of doing a banking business in the country in which they were established, rather than merely acting as mediators of German trade, and began to finance industrial enterprises, railway construction, etc., in the land of their adoption, that they commenced to do a large business.

There is no occasion for taking a gloomy view of our foreign trade. It has enormously expanded. Though the greater part of the increase has been

in raw materials or semi-manufactured products, it does not follow that we shall not find still greater markets abroad for our finished goods. But our merchants and bankers will have to go about the business like men of sense. If they do, they will promptly dismiss all these inventions of hostile trade "alliances," just as they will also abandon the notion that there is any short and easy way to build up foreign commerce. The whole thing is simply a human and business problem which has to be solved, as other nations have solved it, by human qualities and business principles. First of all, we need to make good the lack pointed out by Mr. Vanderlip—our deficiency, that is, in trained men. The high tariff policy has tended to prevent us from looking to foreign markets. But home-keeping youths have ever homely wits; and Americans must acquire the habit of seeking out a full understanding of the political conditions and the social life and the language of the people with whom they wish to do business, so sharpening their wits and making them cosmopolitan, before they can hope to trade on equal terms with the nations that have long studied and occupied the field.

THE STATE CONSTABULARY.

A State police has long been urged by the *Nation*, not only for Northern States, but for Southern as well; and in the achievements of the model force maintained by the State of Pennsylvania is the clearest demonstration of the usefulness and desirability of such a law-enforcing body. New York, for instance, needs a State police because of the complete breakdown of the sheriff system for enforcing law; because of the necessity of preventing rural crime and apprehending offenders; because of the changed traffic conditions upon its highways; because there is needed a power independent of local politics to uphold State laws; because its heterogeneous population has considerably increased rural lawlessness in several counties. There is the further reason that such a Constabulary would be of invaluable service in preventing and checking riots, and would relieve the National Guard of the disagreeable necessity of dealing with strikes.

This latter, so far as this State is concerned, does not appear to us the

most convincing reason. Unlike Pennsylvania, New York has had comparatively few cases of labor trouble involving the calling out of the militia. There can be no question, however, of the greater efficacy of a trained body of mounted police in handling mobs than a similar force of troops. In the street-car strike in Philadelphia in 1910 a company of militia was disarmed and made ridiculous by a mob of women, which was promptly handled and made to behave by a small body of police. In the Pressed Steel Car strike at McKee's Rocks, near Pittsburgh, the strikers cheered the Constabulary, even after they had been sharply handled by the police. They recognized that the Constabulary were doing their duty, and doing it well, admired their courage, and respected them for showing as much consideration as possible. None the less, it is a regrettable fact that organized labor is opposed to the Pennsylvania force, and has thus far blocked a necessary increase. In New York, opposition may develop in this quarter; but we hope that the union element which believes in the necessity of force to win strikes will be held in check by wiser leaders, who will see the great advantage to the whole State if such a body were created to serve the entire commonwealth.

It is the prevention of crime and the apprehending of rural offenders which seem to us the chief reasons for a Constabulary. It is a striking fact that the number of arrests by the Pennsylvania Constabulary has decreased from 5,028 in 1908 to 1,144 in 1912. This does not indicate any police laxity; on the contrary, the decrease has been steady, and is traceable directly to the preventive work of Major Groome's men, who patrol annually between 400,000 and 500,000 miles, although there are but 228 of them, and they are likely to be drawn off at any moment for strike or emergency duty. Thus, they furnish from their number trustworthy State detectives. In the matter of the Coatesville lynching, for instance, the Constabulary placed detectives in that town and obtained the evidence upon which the indictments of the lynchers were based. It is safe to say that if a single member of the force had been in town on the day of the lynching, the town and State would not have been disgraced. Yet the

service of the Constabulary costs the State only \$331,000 a year.

This may seem to some a large figure to add to the budget of New York just when it is in great need of economy. But crime is the most costly thing with which a State has to deal. It always spells outgo and no return. It is perfectly plain that by its preventive work the Pennsylvania police have saved the State much more than they have cost, to say nothing of the comfort and security given to districts hitherto terrorized by the lawless, or in danger from wandering criminals. Westchester County would particularly appreciate such a sense of security; that it now lacks altogether. The large influx of Italians into the county has resulted in some terrible crimes, many of which have gone unpunished. In other cases, the Aqueduct police have come to the rescue. But the fact remains that Italians are used to seeing rural districts patrolled by their admirable carabinieri. They come over here and see no symbol of authority whatever; that a sheriff resides ten or twenty miles away impresses them not at all. It was the Aqueduct police, and not the Sheriff, who captured the six Italians executed by the State last year for a horrible crime at Yorktown Heights; and despite the Sheriff, the three Italian murderers who killed a worthy citizen at Mount Kisco last summer readily made their escape, although identified, and not one has been arrested. A single Pennsylvania constable would easily have bagged the trio.

Had New York possessed a Constabulary, it would not have been necessary to call out United States troops from Plattsburgh Barracks last summer to fight the Adirondack fires which did so much damage. The Pennsylvania police have done yeoman service as forest rangers and game- and fire-wardens, in addition to all their own duties; in 1906, prior to the establishment of the police, seven civilian game-wardens were shot at and four killed. Since the police appeared all such attacks have ceased. Every Continental country has its *gendarmerie*; that the United States is for most of its territory without such a force is, to our mind, one reason why our record of crime disgraces the nation.

MAKING LIFE INSURANCE DO THE MOST GOOD.

Several of the leading life insurance companies have recently devoted considerable effort to the promotion among their policyholders of a mode of using their insurance so as to obtain the greatest certainty of substantial good for those whom the insurance is designed to benefit. They have drawn the attention of actual and prospective insurers to the advantage of the plan of putting the benefits in the shape of annuities for the beneficiary instead of a lump sum paid at the death of the insured. Mr. Sylvester C. Dunham, president of the Travelers' Insurance Company, at the recent meeting of life insurance presidents in this city, referred to the frequency with which widows lost in a few months all the money that was the result of self-denial for years, often by both husband and wife. He dwelt upon the wide extent of the business carried on by the promoters of get-rich-quick schemes, who systematically seek their prey among the very people that can least afford the loss in such ventures. Important and regrettable as these losses are, however, they doubtless are less in the aggregate than those caused by the sinking of hard-earned money in investments which, while not tainted with fraud or marked by clear folly, do not present the solid safety that attaches to the careful investments of a properly managed fiduciary corporation. It is therefore to be hoped that the annuity plan will find steadily increasing favor.

But there is a consideration making in somewhat the same direction which seems never to be pressed either by insurance companies or by others. We refer to the fact that in a large proportion of cases the sole motive of the insurer is to provide for the benefit of one person or of a small group of persons, and that if these do not survive him the acquisition of the amount of his policy by his heirs-at-law is of no interest to him. For simplicity, let us speak of the case of a man whose only purpose in insuring is to provide for his wife in case she survives him. Evidently, the way in which he could best serve this purpose would be to take out a policy providing for a payment to the widow either of a lump sum or of a fixed annuity, the company to pay nothing in

the event that she did not survive him. By means of this last feature, he could evidently obtain for the widow, with a given expenditure, a much larger provision than otherwise.

Survivorship policies of this nature—simple survivorship policies and survivorship annuities—have been obtainable from English companies since the very infancy of life insurance, and also from American companies; but the advantage of them has not been made sufficiently known. There are, indeed, two evident obstacles to their widespread adoption. One is that people have a dislike to paying premiums of life insurance from which it may easily happen that no returns will come; how unreasonable this attitude is appears at once when we consider that in the case of fire insurance, and even accident insurance, we never think of regarding the probability that our house will not burn down or that we shall not break a leg or an arm as any objection at all. The other obstacle comes from the fact that the majority of persons nowadays, when they insure, have in view a provision for their own old age as well as for a surviving beneficiary or beneficiaries. To some extent both these difficulties, however, are overcome in that combination form of policy which was introduced a number of years ago by Emory McClintock, one of the foremost actuaries in the world, under the name of the continuous endowment policy, and which, we believe, is essentially identical with some of the plans now being pushed by the companies that are recommending the annuity plan.

We are convinced, nevertheless, that it would be possible to bring about such recognition of the manifest advantages of the survivorship plan in insurance as would result in its adoption by thousands of persons who now either do not insure at all, or insure very inadequately, for the protection of those dear to them. Every man would prefer, of course, to make sure of his own independence if he lives to old age, as well as of the welfare of his wife, or children, or mother, if he dies an untimely death. But it costs a lot of money to do that; and if a man who cannot afford a big annual sum for insurance were distinctly and simply informed that for a very moderate sum applied to the sole purpose of providing for some one per-

son dependent on him he could place that person beyond all danger of want, he would in a considerable proportion of cases avail himself of the opportunity. This surely applies in great numbers of cases of husband and wife; but there are others. Unmarried men having a parent dependent on them are not to be counted by the million; but there are many thousands, perhaps many hundreds of thousands of them. A man of thirty could, by the payment of a veritable trifle, absolutely insure that his mother of sixty should not suffer in material comfort through his death; and the peace of mind that this would bring about would of itself in many cases be a great blessing. It is doubtless true that there is no great inducement to insurance companies in general, from their customary standpoint of large-scale business, to exert themselves greatly in this direction; but some one company, making a specialty of it, might do much with it, and in doing so would be entitled to the credit of having done a real social service. Nor do we see any reason why some of our great millionaires should not start a company which would undertake this work on well-planned lines—surely as good an embodiment of the idea of “philanthropy and 4 per cent.” as can well be imagined.

AN ALASKA PROGRAMME.

In my judgment, the way to deal with the problem of Alaska resources is to establish a board of directors to have this work in charge. Into the hands of this board or commission I would give all the national assets in that territory, to be used primarily for her improvement—her lands, fisheries, Indians, Eskimos, seals, forests, mines, waterways, railroads—all that the nation owns, cares for, controls, or regulates. Congress should determine in broad outline the policies which this board in a liberal discretion should elaborate and administer, much as is done as to the Philippines. This board would, of course, have nothing whatsoever to do with the internal affairs of the organized Territory of Alaska, for it would exercise no powers save such as Congress granted over the property of the United States in Alaska.

This is the solution that the Secretary of the Interior recommends for the problem of Alaskan development. It strikes us as an admirable proposal. The question has now been conspicuously before the country, from time to time, for something like eight years. Mr. Roosevelt treated it with vigor in some of his messages. The Guggenheim scheme, fol-

lowed by the Ballinger unpleasantness, made it for a considerable period the focus of an intense controversy. President Taft gave to the question a great deal of serious attention, and Secretary Fisher, soon after his appointment as successor to Ballinger, made a visit of investigation to Alaska which resulted in a comprehensive report and important recommendations, especially that of the construction by the Government of a main line of railway in the Territory. This recommendation was adopted by the President. Mr. Taft also urged, as had Mr. Roosevelt before him, the introduction of a comprehensive system of leasing for the exploitation of the coal lands; and in more than one message he recommended the establishment of a commission form of government for Alaska.

While, therefore, Secretary Lane's proposal is novel and original, it seems, to use the medical phrase, clearly “indicated” by the history of the case. He, like President Taft and President Roosevelt, wishes to institute an effective leasing system; like Secretary Fisher and President Taft, he thinks Government construction of a main line of railway an essential prerequisite for the opening up of the country; and he recognizes that the chief obstacle to attaining large results has been the lack of any adequate handling of the problem as a whole. What he adds to the recommendations of his predecessors is a plan for the removal of this obstacle. Instead of an Alaskan question being either nobody's business or the incidental and sporadic business of half a dozen different departments of the Government, he wishes to have a commission created whose sole business it will be to look after the concerns of the nation in Alaska. Properly safeguarded as to the exercise of its powers, such a commission appears to offer the best prospect at once of protection for the nation's possessions against spoliation, and of encouragement to legitimate private enterprise.

In lively and interesting style, Secretary Lane sketches, in the introductory part of his report, the history of the conflict between these opposing aspects of our general land policy in the past. Alaska simply happened to come into active consideration at the time when this policy had, under severe but

not too severe criticism, been brought to a halt. It had been wasteful, and thoughtless, and indiscriminating. It had resulted in the reduction of our magnificent possessions in the States and the older Territories to a small fraction of what they had been, without anything like adequate advantage to the people and with a vast amount of undeserved gain to land-grabbers. It was natural that when this process was, by vigorous resistance, brought to an end, something like paralysis should have set in for a time. That is the price which must almost inevitably be paid for the effecting of a cure for so long-standing a disease. Attempts have all along been made by eager friends of Western development to discredit the champions of conservation as men who wished to lock up the resources of the country indefinitely, and in their zeal for the interests of future generations would ignore the needs of the generation now on the scene. The accusation is thoroughly unjust, but the policy which includes a leasing and royalty system for coal and other mineral lands, and discrimination of treatment between timber lands and agricultural lands, has been taking some time to get into shape. Secretary Lane urges legislation by Congress to this end; and it is quite as important that this recommendation concerning the public domain nearer home should be attended to as that Alaskan affairs should be put upon a better footing.

With Mr. Lane's picturesque presentation of Alaska's possibilities it would be hypercritical to find fault. Still it may not be idle to point out that allowance must there be made for the ardor of the advocate. That the potentialities of the Territory are very great is now generally recognized; but as a region which, within anything like a near future, can be made to contain a large population, its claims are doubtful. It is true that the present sparseness of Alaskan population “cannot be explained on the ground of the inhospitality of the Alaskan climate”; and it is also true that “our people are not stayed in their quest for homes or wealth by the rigors of a long winter.” Still, they do not prefer those rigors, nor do they like, other things being equal, to go to places so remote in point of location and so peculiar in other re-

spects as is Alaska. The process of settlement will in all probability be a slow one at best. The example of New Zealand is instructive in this regard; in spite of its temperate climate, its good land, its mineral resources, and the long-established and much-advertised attractions of its system of government, it receives a net accession of only four or five thousand inhabitants annually by immigration. The point is not vital as to the essence of the general policy proposed by Mr. Lane, but it indicates the danger of over-sanguineness in the execution of that policy.

LITERATURE AND LIFE IN FRANCE.

The dispatches telling of the death of Jules Claretie, journalist, playwright, dramatist, and man of affairs, all properly emphasized his membership in the French Academy. The term "immortal" has become naturalized the world over. But in this country at the present moment there is a certain danger in using the word. The press has hardly finished poking fun at our own "immortals" as embraced in the American Institute of Arts and Letters, which recently had its meeting in Chicago. There is also danger of doing injustice to the great Academy which Richelieu founded, by popularizing the idea that it is on the whole a society of pedants and book-worms and dryasdusts, who are not qualified to legislate for a living literature because they themselves stand apart from life. This popular conception of the French Academy is reinforced by the well-known tradition of the forty-first chair, the chair to which Molière, Flaubert, Emile Zola, and other "rebels" failed to be elected.

As a matter of fact, the French Academy is far from being an assemblage of secluded scholars and poets of the ivory tower. Certain rebels have failed to obtain admission, but many more rebels have been inscribed on its rolls, though not perhaps until time and experience have given them national prestige and a broadly national outlook. The career of Jules Claretie is an instance in point. He began his literary career as a disciple of Henry Murger, author of "La Vie de Bohème," surely not a pedant or a conservative. Like so many distinguished Frenchmen of to-day, he was an ardent republican during the last years of the Third Empire. He went through

the war with Prussia, that cataclysmic event which has left its mark, generally in the form of a sobering influence, on French people of all classes. As head of the Théâtre Français for nearly thirty years, he must have displayed administrative ability, business acumen, and the gift of diplomacy. His weekly *causeries* in *Le Temps* showed a man vividly alive to things of the present day. Here, surely, was no dreamy scholar or fussy grammarian. Nor was Claretie an exception in the Academy, which now contains rebels like Maurice Donnay, who began his career by chanting naughty verses at the Black Cat, dressed in a burlesque Academic uniform; or Jean Richepin, the poet of the vagabond life; or sturdy fighters like Brieux and Maurice Barrès.

Such full, active lives blending the work of the spirit with the hard experience of the world are completely in line with the great historic tradition of the French people, a people which in less than three-quarters of a century has had at the head of its Government philosophers and historians like Guizot and Thiers and a poet of romantic idealism like Lamartine; leaders of the parliamentary opposition like Victor Hugo and the college professor, Jean Jaurès; a people which at the present day names its battleships and cruisers Voltaire, Diderot, Jules Michelet, and Ernest Renan. If France has been the reservoir of political ideas and ideals for the world, it is not merely because the French are a highly volatile race given to experimentation, but because of the large share which men of imagination—philosophers, scientists, men of letters—have played in her political life. The ardent intellectual curiosity of the French nature spares no field of life. But something more than curiosity enters into the account. There is also the habit of laborious application. Tourists have made a commonplace of the thrift and industry of the French working and trading classes. What they have not touched upon is the industry of the French intellectual classes. Only now are we beginning to realize the magnitude of the labors of a Pasteur or a Poincaré, or the lesser-known pioneers who made possible many inventions that enter intimately into our modern industrial life.

Nothing can be further from the truth

than the popular conception of the Parisian man of letters as a jolly boulevardier who does his literary work in intervals of social intrigue and the pulling of wires. The extraordinary copiousness of a Claretie is no exception; it is true of most French writers, from sober craftsmen like Sainte-Beuve and Emile Faguet to rebels like the late Catulle Mendès. This, too, goes back to old French tradition, to the numberless volumes of Voltaire and the gigantic labors of a Diderot. Such extraordinary productivity will be explained only to a minor degree by the fact that the task of learning how to write is spared to every Frenchman, who is born with the gift of supple and accurate expression. Nor will the press of necessity explain everything. The pecuniary rewards of authorship in France are not great as a rule, and a writer to make a living must write continuously. But the explanation is that here is a nation which knows how to combine application with artistic ease; a nation which has solved the important problem of how to be gay and how to work.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Brunswick County, in Virginia, was formed in the year 1720 from the counties of Surry and Isle of Wight, in view of the fact that "the frontiers towards the high mountains are exposed to danger from the Indians, and the late settlements of the French to the westward of the said mountains." The chief Indian Trading Path from James River to the south traversed what became territory of Brunswick County, and at a point on this road, in 1714, Gov. Spotswood had set up a fort and a school, both for the good manners of the aboriginals. Brunswick County lay very near the West for many years of the eighteenth century, and conditions in the region were not greatly dissimilar to those obtaining about Jamestown when George Sandys was making his version of the "Metamorphoses of Ovid," printed in folio at London in 1626.

'Twas always spring; warm Zephyrus sweetly blew
On smiling flowers, which without setting grew—
Sandys may have written the lines during the excellent crop season of 1622, a year of maize so high that the Indians found good cover in approaching the settlements for their dreadful slaughter.

Brunswick County had been but two years established, under the new house of Hanover, when there was born at Anglesea in Wales, Goronwy Ddhu o Fon, that is, Black Goronwy of Anglesea, called Goronwy Owen, who was to die in the County of Brunswick some fifty years later, the last of the great poets of Wales. Goronwy Owen came to Virginia about 1757, was for two years master of the Grammar School at William and Mary College, and thereafter minister of the Parish of St. Andrew's in Brunswick County. His grave there has recently been

identified. The author of the "Cywydd y Farn" was an Oxford man, one of the numerous alumni of the English and Scottish Universities to whom fell the task, before the Revolution, of instructing many of the youth of Virginia in the Latin and the Greek, with something of the mathematics. Goronwy Ddhu, immortal composer of the "Last Judgment," was fond of drink, and it is not certain that he was a useful man in America, or that he added to his poetical works among the woods of Brunswick County.

Mecklenburg County, set off in 1764, had been a part of Old Brunswick. For many years before the formation of Mecklenburg the Munfords of that county played a part as active men of the frontier. Robert Munford, perhaps grandson of the emigrant, married into the legal family of Beverley. Robert Munford's son, William Munford (born in the County of Mecklenburg in 1775), was the grandson of William Beverley, an historian of Virginia (editions 1705 and 1722), who was the first cousin of Sir John Randolph, uncle of William Stith, an historian of Virginia (first ed., 1747). William Munford had affiliations with an earlier man of letters. The obituary notice of Sir John Randolph, Knt. (*Virginia Gazette*, March 11, 1736-7), runs: "He was a gentleman of one of the best families in this country, although what Livy says of the Romans, soon after the Foundation of their City, be very applicable to us here—*in novo populo ubi omnis repentina nobilitas fit*, yet his family was of no mean figure in England before it was transplanted hither. Sir Thomas Randolph was of a Collateral Branch, which had the Honour, in several important Embassies, to serve Q. Elizabeth. Mr. Thomas Randolph, the poet, was great Uncle to Sir John. An immature Death put a Stop to his rising Genius and Fame; but he had gained such a Reputation among the Wits of his age that he was exceedingly lamented; and Ben Jonson always expressed his Love and Esteem for him, calling him by no other Title, but that of Son."

William Munford was at college at William and Mary, where he seems to have been introduced to the classical literatures by the celebrated George Wythe, under whom also he studied law. Munford practiced law with success in his native county of Mecklenburg for about ten years, finding time for literary diversions. He published at Richmond in 1798 (12mo, 189 pp.) "Poems and Compositions in Prose on Several Occasions. By William Munford, of the County of Mecklenburg and State of Virginia"—largely a Tragedy, Almorán and Hamet, founded on an Eastern Tale of that name; versions of the Odes of Horace; and metrical versions of Ossian. Removing to Richmond about 1805, Munford held office as a member of the Council of State until 1811, when he became Clerk of the House of Delegates, so continuing until his death in 1825, in the month of June. His Preface to his translation of the Iliad of Homer is dated, "Richmond, May, 1825."

Munford's Homer must, no doubt, be accounted a creditable work. It was published by his wife in 1846, two volumes, 8vo (Boston: Little & Brown). Of his task the author remarks: "How far I have succeeded in this difficult enterprise, the public will judge, if not prevented from reading

this work by the prejudice unfortunately existing against American poetry. I hope, however, that some at least of the *lovers* of *Homer* will not be unwilling to behold their favorite author arrayed in such various suits of apparel, as may be furnished by artists of different tastes. Pope has equipped him in the fashionable style of a modern fine gentleman; Cowper displays him, like his own Ulysses, in 'rags unseemly,' or in the uncouth garb of a savage. Surely, then, there is room for an effort to introduce him to the acquaintance of my countrymen in the simple yet graceful and venerable costume of his own heroic times." For example:

Oh scandal and disgrace!
Truly ye talk like feeble, beardless boys,
Who know not warlike deeds. Ah! whither now
Are fled our solemn promises and oaths?
Evanish'd with the smoke of sacrifice!
The councils and designs, by heroes fram'd,
The treaties, with unmix'd libations crown'd,
And right hands join'd, to which we trusted once,
Are fruitless all! For without benefit
We wrangle and dispute, and staying here
However long, we find no remedy.

[Book II, ll. 441-451.]

ALFRED J. MORRISON.

Correspondence

GERMAN DEGREES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Last summer, when the report of the attendance at the German universities for the preceding semester came into my hands, I tried to make an estimate of the number of doctor-theses laid before the faculties of those institutions in which the German language is used as a medium of instruction. According to my calculation, it amounted to about 5,000 annually. These figures were so large that I thought I must be mistaken. However, the *Deutsche Literaturzeitung* contains a report of a paper read before the Association of German University Professors, held in Strasburg on the 13th of October last, by Professor von Amira, of Munich, in which he affirms that more than 5,500 such dissertations were issued in 1910 from the universities of the German Empire alone. My figures were, therefore, a good deal too low. Yet the sum-total does not seem unreasonable when we reflect that during the past few years more than 60,000 students have attended the German universities, without counting those in Austria and Switzerland.

It is within bounds to say that of this enormous output not one thesis in ten is worth printing, and not one in a hundred has any permanent value. Professor von Amira declared that in foreign countries German doctors have come to be regarded as a fit subject for merriment, and that even at home they are not taken very seriously. He finds a good deal of difference in the requirements of the different universities and even in the faculties of the same university. He recommends a number of reforms, the adoption of which he proposes for Germany, Switzerland, and Austria, in order to bring about uniformity in the matter of conferring degrees. One is that an accepted thesis should really enlarge the boundaries of knowledge and should not be a mere statistical collection

of data. Another is that the candidate should be required to testify under oath that his work was done without assistance and that if it should be subsequently discovered that he had not acted in good faith his degree should be revoked. Evidently the sense of honor in German university circles is not as keen as it is usually supposed to be.

Now, no one believes it is possible for several thousand persons to prepare as many documents that by any stretch of language could be said to contain anything original. Search is not research. While there are doubtless yet many things to discover in the vast domain of nature, that of the historical sciences is rapidly becoming smaller. Would the result not be far more satisfactory if assimilation rather than discovery were set as the goal to be striven for? There would be no danger of exhausting the material. A thesis might still be required, but more attention should be paid to the soundness of the ideas it contained. A great deal of stress should be laid upon the oral part of the examination. This would serve to bring out to what extent the candidate had really made the matter under study a part of his mental equipment, at least if the theme chosen lay in the field of literature. It might not be wise to set a high standard of literary excellence for persons who intend to devote themselves to purely practical activities. But such a requirement would not be out of place for those who expect to devote themselves to teaching. That this goal is not impossible of attainment is proved by the fact that French books as well as articles in French periodicals almost without exception display finer taste in composition than those appearing on the other side of the Channel or of the Rhine.

Many German professors have expressed the opinion that at least 40 per cent. of their students ought not to be in a university at all. The same judgment might with justice be applied to this country. Too many young people are looking towards gaining a livelihood with their wits who should be using their hands for this purpose. Our vicious practice of "drumming up" students is largely responsible. A slight reaction against purely practical studies has set in on this side of the Atlantic. Such seems also to be the case in France, if Professor Laurand is not mistaken. He affirms, in the announcement of his forthcoming "Manuel des Etudes grecques et latines" that "Les études classiques reviennent en honneur. De plus en plus on se rend compte qu'on ne peut les négliger sans détriment." On the other hand, the tendency in Germany is more and more strongly towards the purely practical in education, if the proposed establishment of two or three new universities from the curricula of which the culture studies are to be omitted, can be taken as a sign of the times. CHARLES W. SUPER.

Athens, O., December 24.

THE BULGARO-SERVIAN TREATY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the issue of the *Nation* for December 11 there is a reference to the enterprise displayed by the *Paris Matin* in publishing the secret Bulgaro-Servian

treaty of March, 1912. The gist of your comment is that Russia, Germany, and Austria were aware of the alliance, and that their action in trying to prevent war with Turkey was largely formal.

May I point out that this is no startling revelation? In the *Revue de Paris* for December 15, 1912, there appeared an article on "La Ligue balkanique," by Auguste Gauvain, who was obviously inspired from trustworthy sources. It was there stated that Berlin and Vienna were privy to the alliance, and the fact has not been denied, so far as I am aware. On January 9, 1913, the *Sofia Mir*, the Governmental organ, acknowledged that the idea of the alliance was due at the outset to foreign inspiration. Finally, from the articles published by the *Times* (weekly edition, June 20), on the history of the alliance, it is clear that the Bulgaro-Servian agreement was due to "Russian inspiration," represented by M. Hartwig, the energetic Russian Minister at Belgrade. These articles were written by Mr. J. D. Bouchier, the *Times's* correspondent in the Balkan peninsula, whose accuracy is beyond question, at least on matters of fact.

BERNADOTTE E. SCHMITT.

Cleveland, O., December 23.

A DEAN OF WOMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with much interest in the *Nation* of November 13 your correspondent's query regarding deans. I cannot attempt to answer so large a question since I have been trying to discover the *raison d'être* of but one species of dean. The writer says "dean of women of course." I suppose it has come to be "of course," but why? What is the real function of a dean of women? I have studied the occupants of the position in various colleges, but they are so different there seems to be no acknowledged type. In one case the dean is a handsome woman, dresses well, is possessed of some scholarship, but without sympathy or social tact. In another, she is a kind of superior matron whose work is almost exclusively supervision of boarding arrangements for women. She is not at all sure to dress suitably and is far from impressive. Another dean is learned, kindly, but has no ability to know or remember her girls. Still another has interest in girls, but violates ordinary rules of good manners. Some have the scholarship to rank with the best faculty members, others are not even college graduates.

The question naturally arises, what is a dean of women? She seems to be, in some sense, the successor of the old-time preceptress changed to fit higher education. If the office is a good thing it should be made a success. I have wondered if part of the difficulty in this matter comes from the fact that while a dean of women must be a woman's woman, under present conditions the position is determined by men as presidents of colleges and as boards of control. Must a dean be a learned woman who represents the best in higher education and ranks high in her chosen field? Should she be a society woman in the best sense of the term, who will be a model for the students that in our democratic colleges need to be trained for a new social life? A

woman with human sympathy, who will win her girls? A physical director to protect and improve health? An administrator? A dragon? A policewoman? Or by chance must a dean be a combination of all these? I understand courses are to be offered in some universities to train deans of women. Are deans like poets or can they be made?

I once knew a member of a board of trustees who desired "a woman of the type of Mary Lyon, Emma Willard, and Alice Freeman Palmer." Maybe the dean of women is something as impossible as a woman combining all the good points of these three unique women.

MARY B. PUTNAM.

Ypsilanti, Mich., December 22.

Literature

A NEW VOLUME OF THE CAMBRIDGE MEDIEVAL HISTORY.

The Cambridge Medieval History. Planned by J. B. Bury, M.A., Regius Professor of Modern History. Edited by H. M. Gwatkin, M. A., and J. P. Whitney, B.D. Volume II: The Rise of the Saracens and the Foundation of the Western Empire. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$5 net.

This great coöperative undertaking which continues backwards, so to speak, the "Cambridge Modern History" that was completed a year ago, resembles that huge work, both in its general plan and in the lines along which that plan is carried out. Instead of one unbroken and continuous narrative, we have a succession of chapters by different authors, who endeavor among them to cover the whole field by breaking it up into subdivisions; each subdivision being allotted to a writer who is a specialist in that particular division. This method, successfully used by Rambaud and Lavissee in their French "Histoire Universelle," has certain evident advantages, but it almost of necessity involves some overlapping, some risk of omissions, and also a possibility of divergence between the views of two or more writers who are dealing with cognate topics. To the experienced scholar this will seem no great evil: it may even be deemed by him a gain that the various aspects of the same event, or character, or institution, should be presented within the covers of the same book. But the "general reader" may be occasionally perplexed by finding that a theory which he has accepted with satisfaction from the writer of one chapter is ignored or set aside by the writer of another, perhaps without reasons assigned.

The present volume has twenty-two chapters and 891 pages, without counting the maps. It is the work of twenty-one writers, of whom nine belong to the European Continent, one (Professor

Burr, of Cornell University) to the United States, and the rest to Great Britain. The period covered is a tolerably well defined period, viz., that from the accession of Justinian to the death of Charlemagne. Besides the more directly narrative chapters, there are several which are, very properly, devoted to the description of institutions. These include The Governmental and Monastic System in Gaul under the Merovingians; Imperial Administration in Italy and Africa; Foundations of Society, *i. e.*, the Origins of Feudalism (by Prof. Paul Vinogradoff); Legislation and Administration of Charles the Great, by Dr. Gerhard Seeliger, and Roman Law, by Mr. H. J. Roby; the last a chapter written with thorough knowledge, which, perhaps in deference to the example of Gibbon, has been made to contain not only an account of Justinian's compilations, but virtually a miniature treatise on the law of Rome, with special reference to the alterations made by Justinian or his legal advisers. The ecclesiastical side of history is dealt with in a chapter upon Celtic Heathenism in Gaul and in the British Isles; and on Germanic Heathenism, with a long chapter immediately following on the Conversion of the Kelts in Roman Britain, in Scotland, and in Ireland, and also on the Conversion of the Teutons in England and in Germany. We find also a chapter on Pope Gregory the Great, but no account of the development of doctrine or ritual during the period covered by the volume (sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries). The early growth of the Slavonic peoples, an obscure and curious subject upon which it is hard to find any full or trustworthy information in any English book, is treated by Dr. Peisker, of Gratz, in a chapter entitled The Expansion of the Slavs. Three chapters are devoted to Islam. The first traces the career of Mohammed; the second describes the expansion of Saracenic power in the East; the third tells of the Arab conquests in North Africa and Europe, carrying the story down to the beginning of the conquest of Sicily from the Saracens by the Normans in A. D. 1061.

The execution of the book is very similar to that of the previous volume and to that of the "Cambridge Modern History," which has naturally and properly been taken as a model. Some writers are more scrupulously dry and exact than others, some a little more juicy than others. Dr. Rafael de Altamira's account of the Visigothic kingdom in Spain is pleasantly as well as clearly expressed, and presents in a concise form an illuminative view of a very dark and perplexing period. It is certainly not so entertaining or pictorial as Washington Irving's "Legends of the Conquest of Spain," but it

gives a more reasonable explanation of the collapse of the Gothic monarchy under the Muslim attack.

Among the other articles which have a certain measure of novelty because the facts here collected have been difficult to obtain except by ploughing through a number of books containing different and often irreconcilable views, are those already mentioned on the heathenism of the primitive Celts and Teutons, and on the circumstances of their respective conversions to Christianity. These belong to the dry category. They are strings of facts rather than connected presentations of phases of historical development; but the facts have been collected with critical care, and at least the rudiments of the subject are well set forth. In Professor Whitney's chapter on the Conversion of the Teutons in England and in Germany, there is no less knowledge and more of constructive quality. It is an excellent summary of a series of events which have been the theme of much controversy.

In the period which the volume covers four personalities stand out, overtopping all others, viz., the Emperor Justinian, Pope Gregory the First, Mohammed, and Charlemagne. Of these four the one about whom we would gladly know most, because he had the greatest influence on the world, is the one of whom we actually know least, not that there are not an immense number of stories current about him, but that it is difficult to determine how much truth there is in the stories and thereby to arrive at any positive conclusions. Mohammed is one of the five or six figures in history about whom curiosity is never satisfied. The most divergent views of his talents, as well as of his honesty and his moral qualities generally, have been taken, and although no one would now follow the European writers of the seventeenth century in calling him "the impostor of Mecca," his character and conduct continue to afford matter for endless debate. In the chapter allotted to him there is quoted a saying of Theodor Nöldeke, one of the greatest Semitic scholars of our time, that, having in his younger days planned a work on the history of the early Muslim Empire, he was finally deterred from carrying out the scheme by his inability to offer any satisfactory account of the Prophet's character. Mr. Bevan, professor of Arabic at Cambridge, England, in the critically studied, carefully written, and well-balanced account which he gives of Mohammed's life, does not attempt what Nöldeke found an impossible task. But he at least gives in a clear and compact form the gist of the data we possess. He truly observes that in the absence of all external—i. e., non-Arabian and non-Muslim—sources we are obliged to rely

on what Muslim writers tell us, and they are obviously very doubtful witnesses. Nevertheless, people will go on studying a personage so extraordinary, and fresh theories will continue to be formed about him, and also about the causes of the amazingly rapid course of victory which attended the arms of his disciples and successors in the century that followed his death. Mr. Bevan is chary of speculation; but he seems disposed to attach rather less importance to the Prophet's personality than scholars did fifty years ago.

In discussing the subject [Mohammed's career] there are two opposite dangers which we must strive to avoid. On the one hand, we should beware of assuming that Mohammed's doctrine and policy were determined solely by his own personal qualities. Much that strikes us as peculiar in his preaching may in reality be due to his Jewish or Christian informants. It is likewise clear that the spread of his religion was largely governed by factors over which he had no control. All the evidence tends to show that during the first few years of his propaganda he never dreamed of acquiring political power. He strove, it is true, to convert Mecca as a whole, and not merely a few individuals, to the true faith; but this was not in view of an earthly kingdom—it was in view of the impending Day of Judgment. Even when at length circumstances placed him in the position of a ruler, his authority rested much more on the voluntary co-operation of his followers than on any material resources that were at his command. It has often been suggested in recent times that the religious movement of which Mohammed was the head coincided with a great national movement on the part of the Arabs, who, it is said, had already developed, independently of Islam, a sense of their superiority to other races, and were eager to overrun the neighboring countries. On this question it is difficult to pronounce a definite opinion, since nearly all our information about the Arabs of that period comes through Muslim channels. But in any case, the national feelings of the Arabs played a very important part in the diffusion of Islam.

On the other hand, we must avoid the error of ignoring the extraordinary influence exercised by the Prophet over his disciples, an influence which was apparently due quite as much to his moral as to his intellectual qualities. The confidence which he inspired may seem to us undeserved, but it is only just to acknowledge that he used his immense power oftener for the purpose of restraining than for the purpose of stimulating fanaticism (pp. 328, 9).

The view of the spread of Islam here tentatively recognized by Professor Bevan is put much more positively by Professor Becker, of Hamburg, author of the next following chapter on the Expansion of the Saracens. He suggests that the Arab migration and conquest are conceivable without the intervention of Islam at all. "The movement itself," he holds, "had been on foot long before Islam gave it a party cry and an or-

ganization." This idea, and others bearing on the forces at work throughout Arabia in the Prophet's lifetime, are supported in paragraphs too long to quote, which set the early history of the Muslim conquests in a fresh and unfamiliar light, and give a certain novelty to this part of the volume.

The administrative system of Charles the Great receives that full treatment which is its due, and the three chapters assigned to the great Frankish King and his coronation as Emperor, two of these by a German professor and one by an English ecclesiastic, are among the best in the book. We cannot but regret, however, that the practice followed in the Cambridge Modern History of giving no references to authorities, and of drawing no distinction, in the bibliographies attached to each chapter, between works of real value and others of little or no consequence, has been continued here. It is a pity to send the student to a book whose title promises much while its contents perform nothing, as sometimes happens in these lists. Otherwise we find the lists helpful. One improvement on the Cambridge Modern History we gladly note. The historical maps are placed at the end of this volume, instead of being relegated to one which has not yet appeared. They are well executed, and a great aid to the comprehension of the text. Taking this volume as a whole, it gives us every reason to hope that the series will be of high and permanent value to the student of the Middle Ages.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Story of Mary Dunne. By M. E. Francis (Mrs. Frances Blundell). New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

This story has to do with that newly advertised institution of white slavery which has proved such a boon to the playwrights and novelists of the current season. Here again is the beautiful and innocent young girl from the country decoyed to an evil house and starved and beaten into a life of shame. The situation is that of "My Little Sister" and a dozen other recent narratives. The atmosphere is fresh, however. The very ingenuousness of the tale, its touches of frank melodrama, are marks of sincerity.

Mary is the violet by a mossy stone on a far Irish hillside. She has a lover, but he must go to America to win a home for them both. After he is gone, she aspires to earn her mite towards their future happiness. The high wages of England tempt her to cross the Channel. It is her own good old priest who puts her in charge of the "kind, motherly woman" they meet by chance aboard the boat. Then the usual thing happens. After a time, freed for the mo-

ment from her prison, Mary flings herself under an English motor-car. But she does not die, and after a number of incidents involving a chivalrous hospital doctor, the old priest, and her returned and prosperous lover, a happy ending is achieved. The earlier chapters of the story, with their picture of a family of Irish peasants, have a simplicity and charm which are later sacrificed to the exigencies of the painful theme.

The Spare Room. By Mrs. Romilly Feden. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Good farce in fiction is not too common, and this, taken frankly as farce, is good. It is in two parts: the first virtually a prologue, in the form of letters; the second, which is much longer, a facetious narrative. A honeymooning couple, British groom and American bride, take a villa at Capri. It is out of repair, but it has a single available "spare room," to which, in their new pride of possession, they casually invite a number of their relatives and friends. Unexpectedly, on the same day, these persons all descend upon them. The shifts employed to house the interlopers, the complications which arise in consequence of their uncongeniality, are (to a reader in the right mood for farce) really funny. With the aid of two or three love-affairs, the situation is finally unravelled to the satisfaction of everybody concerned.

The Fire Within. By Patricia Wentworth (Mrs. G. F. Dillon). New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This story makes implicitly two demands of the reader. First, he must grant that the most intimate affairs of life are proper material for the novelist. The second assumption cannot be stated baldly without injustice to the book, but it concerns the extent to which a man may act unconsciously, in a dream. If we accept Mrs. Dillon's postulates in these two matters, we shall find little to criticise in the story; for she has handled her material with sincerity and delicacy.

David Blake, a young physician, is desperately in love with Mary Chantrey, who has married his friend. Her sister Elizabeth has for years been in love with David. To shield her husband from a charge of murder, Mary exerts her power over David to make him violate the ethics of his profession. It turns out that this was unnecessary; but David's moral balance is upset by having yielded. His passionate love for Mary reassures itself, he takes to drink, and sleep deserts him. When he is at the point of breakdown, he discovers that Elizabeth has the power to soothe him and make him sleep. Knowing that he is in love with Mary, she marries him to save him. Under Elizabeth's influence David

regains his poise, and through a recurrent dream which he has had since boyhood, he is led to the discovery that he loves her. The dream love is brought into touch with waking life only through a rude shock. The working out of this device puts a severe strain on the reader's credulity, and involves the handling of delicate and debatable material.

The bits of verse prefixed to the chapters are excellent.

A Son of the Hills. By Harriet Theresa Comstock. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

Mrs. Comstock's story has rare merit. It conveys sympathetically a message from the "poor whites" of the Southern hills. Soon after Sandford Merton's mother died and the woman Mary came to live in his father's cabin, Sandy learned to feel that he had a mission, that he must go far away North and there learn to help his people. He bided his time and worked, and after seven years he had saved thirty dollars. He had heard of a college in Massachusetts, and one night he stole away to walk to Massachusetts. He fell ill on the way, and was taken in by a kindly bachelor, who educated him and sent him back to his people, after seven years. Of course, a little golden-haired miss is waiting for Sandy. About the two are built some of the most tender scenes in a book that is charmingly written. At times the story reaches a high dramatic pitch not without danger of toppling over into melodrama, but never quite falling. Highly effective is Mrs. Comstock's use of the mountain scene, not merely as a background, but as an active, regenerative force in the lives of her people.

Dave's Daughter. By Patience B. Cole. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

The letter-writing predilections of Miss Mattie and Miss Matie, the two spinster dressmakers of a Long Island town, form the basis for the action of this story. Their naïve meddlesomeness takes an incredibly exaggerated form, but one fraught with the happiest possibilities for themselves and their friends. Noting in the paper that one Christabel Sayne is to spend \$10,000 on her wedding gown, they write to her a scathing rebuke. Now, Christabel happens to be a young Western orphan, engaged to a New York society leader of fifty. She is starving to make the acquaintance of just such an unconventional pair, and promptly hunts them up. Henceforth, the spinsters think only of the girl's romance. They are astounded and grieved to find that she does not care for the match she is about to make, and that her heart is really set on a young Coloradoan, who seems too timid to declare himself. Inasmuch as all New York is agog over the wedding, the sit-

uation would present an *impasse* to any one with less courage than the dressmakers. But they find a way out.

GOVERNMENTAL EXPERIMENT.

Social Welfare in New Zealand. By Hugh H. Lusk. New York: Sturgis & Walton Co. \$1.50 net.

It is unfortunate that the great strike in New Zealand broke out so soon after the appearance of this work, whose subtitle is, "The Result of Twenty Years of Progressive Social Legislation and Its Significance for the United States and Other Countries." Just twenty years have elapsed since the first arbitration statute of New Zealand was passed. Its purpose was to substitute the calm judgment of a court, the members of which might be expected to have a general acquaintance with the questions likely to come before them, and which should be presided over by a judge accustomed to hear and weigh evidence. It was characteristic of the New Zealand point of view that it took for granted the willingness of all classes of the community to submit to whatever was held to be fair and just by a court of this kind, rather than to insist on fighting a battle. Mr. Lusk says that experience proved that the makers of the new law had not been too sanguine.

The events of the last few weeks have, however, done not a little to impair the confidence bred by the experience of twenty years. In October a strike was declared which speedily attained national proportions, and worked havoc with the comfort and convenience of the general public; and in face, too, of the fact that under the law the labor-union was subject to a fine of £50 a day from the moment the strike was declared. It may be said that twenty years ago there were many who maintained that the compulsory arbitration law could not be thoroughly tested except in a period of pronounced financial depression, like that in which so large a part of the world, Australasia not excepted, now finds itself immersed.

Industrial arbitration is, however, only one of many economic and social departures in New Zealand. The fact that the sympathetic picture which Mr. Lusk has drawn of its operation is at the moment somewhat blurred, should not impair our interest in the remarkable scheme of social and industrial development which has been evolved by that far-off community. The people of New Zealand, or at least a majority of them, know what they desire, and if we may believe Mr. Lusk, they have succeeded in the main in attaining their ends. For eighteen years the colony has had a Labor Government. Immigration has been discouraged, the laboring man has taken precedence of the capitalist, small estates have enjoyed the favor of

the law rather than great, public utilities have been nationalized and municipalized—in short, a policy of state Socialism has been consciously adopted.

The aim of the present work is to trace these steps and to note dispassionately their consequences. We obtain, for example, a clear understanding of how the danger of capitalistic landlordism was averted. This danger was imminent forty years ago, and in 1872 a policy of immigration and public works was introduced which in ten years added \$100,000,000 of debt to the \$50,000,000 previously occasioned by the native rebellions. In 1882 the debt of New Zealand stood at about \$300 for every man, woman, and child in the colony. It is not surprising, therefore, that the decade prior to the twenty years covered by the present work was one of depression and stagnation.

It is perhaps well to bear in mind that the many features of the present state Socialism in New Zealand were introduced just on the eve of, or subsequently to, the greatest industrial revival of modern times. It will be interesting to see how they stand the test of a world-wide industrial depression. It is a well-known fact that the policy which the colony has been perfecting in recent years necessitates exceedingly heavy loans in London during the next twelve months, a matter of considerable importance, in view of the present poverty of the international money market.

All this is said with the hope merely of enhancing the reader's interest in a book well worth his careful attention. The world cannot afford to ignore the remarkable experiments that have been carried on in this South Sea laboratory of economics. Mr. Lusk describes the present results of these experiments in a way to convince many that the last word has been said on the wisdom of New Zealand state Socialism. But his thoughtful and interesting work would leave a stronger impression on our mind if we could forget an utterance of about a month ago by a leading New Zealand newspaper:

As a matter of fact, the principal weapon of the "Syndicalist" apostles is an organized and systematic terrorism. We have had an exhibition of this in New Zealand during the past few days, work having been generally suspended, not because the great majority of strikers were individually desirous of participating or because the great body of citizens were not anxious that industry should continue unchecked, but because ample police protection has not been available to prevent a temporarily successful because a very determined intimidation.

These words, indeed, picture a situation closely analogous to that which existed in the colony just prior to the policy which Mr. Lusk so painstakingly describes. One cannot read the present

work without a consciousness of the irony of fate.

Carducci: A Selection of His Poems, with Verse Translations, Notes, and Three Introductory Essays. By G. L. Bickersteth. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$3.50 net.

Mr. Bickersteth does not "put forward the translations in this book as in any sense an *equivalent* of their originals," but publishes them "in the hope that they will serve not as a substitute for, but as an *interpretation* of, the original to those unacquainted or only slightly acquainted with the Italian language." But if the disclaimer were quite whole-hearted and the purpose were quite single, surely the translations would have been in literal prose rather than in verse that is far from literal. The reader "only slightly acquainted with the Italian language" would be hard put to it, in many instances, to match the English and Italian phrases. The stanza,

With voice as of tempest
No yoke may confine
Cries Savonarola
Our great Florentine,

will hardly guide him to the understanding of the Italian:

E pugna e prèdica
Sotto la stola
Di fra' Girolamo
Savonarola.

The truth is that the obsession of rhyme and rhythm is upon the translator, and that he sacrifices thereto, most inauspiciously, the interpretation that he might have made so excellent. The "Shelley" suffers particularly from the intrusion of padding adjectives: "giovini anni" becomes, for instance, "the *tearless* years of my youth," and "quest'urna che freddo ti chiude" becomes "this urn, thy cold, *uncongenial* prison." Most of the variations from the Italian are of this sort; but the reviewer has noted some thirty passages for which the text was evidently misread.

One might forgive all this if the resulting verses were beautiful in themselves; but they are not. Carducci, in spite of the *Odi barbare*, loved true rhyme, and would have been quick to protest at such pairs as "over: Jehovah," "o'er the sea: Anadyomene," "fairer: Glicera," "old man's: countenance," "honour: on ner," "rising: dies in," "behind: grinned," "clear: Maria," or at such a stanza as this:

Thereafter Tiber's dark-haired nymph shall rove
'Mid moss-grown stones, and tell
The pilgrim how "these are the ruins of
A shame unspeakable."

Nearly all the sonnets, however, are skilfully done, and many of the unrhymed translations from the *Odi bar-*

bare are very good indeed, notably the "Sirmio."

The sins of omission are few, though one misses the "Ruit hora," the "Victory of Brescia," and the "Monte Mario." The sins of inclusion are worse. The presence of the "Satan" is doubtless justified; but the reader, beginning with that and finding next two poems in such wretched taste as "Per le nozze di un geologo" and the "Meminisse horret," would be quite excusable should he lay the book aside in disgust.

The introductory essay on the poetry of Carducci is excellent. It deals mainly with the practicalness of Carducci's nature and poetic purpose; with his selective realism—that is, the concrete, explicit treatment of themes instinct with poetry; and with his constant subjection of form and matter to the strict control of reason. The title of Carducci's second collection of poems is "Levia gravia," not "Levia grandia," as Mr. Bickersteth invariably writes it.

Mr. Bickersteth speaks of Mrs. Holland, whose "Poems of Carducci" (containing about twenty translations) appeared in 1907, as his only English predecessor. He does not mention Frank Sewall's "Poems of Giosuè Carducci," published in New York in 1892, which contains some forty translations—better, on the whole, than those of the two English writers. Mr. Sewall's excellent translation of "The Ox" seems to have been known, in some way, to Mr. Bickersteth, for the two versions coincide in eight of the fourteen rhyme-words, agree verbally in several cases where the English is somewhat at variance with the Italian, and have in common the two lines, "How solemn, like a monument, thou art" (a very free translation), and "All the divine green silence of the plain."

Palaeographia Iberica. Facsimilés de Manuscrits Espagnols et Portugais (ixe-xve siècles) avec Notices et Transcriptions. Par John M. Burnam. Paris: Librairie Champion. 15 fascicules, each 25 francs.

The above title apparently promises a much-needed work, a history of writing in mediæval Spain presented by annotated facsimiles. Till now, there has been nothing of the kind. Collections like those of Ehwald-Loewe and Muñoz y Rivera contain valuable materials for such a history, but that history is still to be told. We are not sure that Professor Burnam's publication will bring us to the goal. The earliest manuscripts discussed are, according to the prospectus, of the eighth century, or, according to the present title, of the ninth. The prospectus further indicates that attention will centre chiefly on texts in the Spanish and Portuguese languages. If this plan is pursued, the earlier and

more important part of the history will receive inadequate treatment, and "Palæographia Iberica" prove too inclusive a term. But instead of demanding what Professor Burnam may not have intended to give, we must be grateful for what he has given.

The first fascicle contains twenty facsimiles, of which all but four are of Latin texts. One, a famous Paris codex of the "Lex Romana Visigothorum," already accessible in reproductions, is of the ninth century, eight are of the twelfth, five of the thirteenth, four of the fourteenth, two of the fifteenth. No strikingly novel or individual features appear in the later Gothic hands here represented. The most interesting are certain twelfth-century scripts which illustrate the gradual triumph of the Caroline hand in Spain. In No. v, a Lisbon codex of Gregory's "Liber Quæstionum," the writer still cultivates the old Visigothic style, but he also shows the influence of the new script. In No. vi, "Incerti Tractatus," also at Lisbon, the general effect is that of late Caroline, with a few lingering traits of Visigothic. Of much historical interest are the five plates devoted to a Lisbon manuscript in three volumes, written at the beginning of the thirteenth century and containing the dictionary and other works of Papias; plates xiv and xv reproduce pictures illustrating the ancient system of counting on the fingers.

In describing the different plates, the author gives first an account of the manuscript with a bibliographical notice, then follows an enumeration of special features of the script, including ligatures, abbreviations, and punctuation, and finally the text is transcribed. This information is satisfactorily presented and is generally, though not scrupulously, accurate. For instance, in pl. i, p. 2, the s-shaped sign stands for "ue" on l. 19, not 9, and is not used for an s in l. 24; as the transcription rightly states, the original reading is "parem," not "pares." On pl. xvii, p. 67, l. 1 read "Illa," not "Jua"; l. 2, "constitit," not "constitut"; l. 3, "necessaria," not "necessentia"; l. 24, what is called e seems rather a false stroke corrected; l. 25, "quedam" ("quidem"?) rather than "quod"; l. 27, it is not noted that "sine" is deleted. If here and elsewhere the transcription is inexact, it reproduces, with a rather meticulous nicety, certain palæographical minutiae, like the occasional appearance of the majuscule M and R in the minuscule. The letter i longa is represented by a special sign. For the form in which the shaft runs above the line, now a capital I, now j, now both I and j (pl. 5), are used; in pl. i, l. 6, an erroneous l appears in *contugali*. J is also employed for the form in which the shaft runs below the line. No phonetic principle is involved here; the scribe used the long shaft on

a purely graphic principle, to avoid confusion with an adjacent short stroke. Spellings, therefore, like "Jn," "gustaverjt," "diujsus" hinder rather than help the object for which a transcription is intended. If such elaborateness were profitable, one might more appropriately distinguish the two forms of the ligature *ti*, which, as Loew has shown, have both phonetical and historical significance. But it is better to include all such matters in the explanation of the plates; for the reader will verify these observations from the plates, not from the transcriptions.

In spite of these defects in details, "Palæographia Iberica" presents, in excellent reproductions, useful specimens of the script, especially the later script, of Spain and Portugal. Though the prospectus makes no certain statement in the matter, we hope that Professor Burnam will treat in an introductory volume the history of writing in Spain, so far as it is presented in his facsimiles.

Notes

This week Little, Brown & Co. will publish the first book of a young English writer, Arthur F. Wallis, whose "Idonia, a Romance of Old London," is a tale of love and roguery.

The same house is bringing out "A People's Man," by E. Phillips Oppenheim, and "From the Angle of Seventeen," by Eden Phillpotts.

The second in the series of books published for the Bureau of Social Hygiene by the Century Company, Abraham Flexner's "Prostitution in Europe," will be issued January 17.

Among the volumes of fiction which the Century Company will publish early this year are "William and Bill," a study of boy life by Grace MacGowan Cook and Caroline Wood Morrison, and "Home," anonymous.

Martin Secker is bringing out this week Gilbert Cannan's new novel, "Old Mole."

The religious penances and punishments self-inflicted by the holy men of India are described, with seventy striking illustrations, by the Rev. W. M. Zumbro in the *National Geographic Magazine* for December. He shows very clearly what a hindrance these five million idlers are to the development of a healthy national life in India. Texas, where more than one-third of our cotton crop is produced, and where, if all the suitable land was under cultivation, there would be a possible production of forty million bales a year, or more than double the present crop of the world, is described by Mr. N. H. Darton, geologist of the United States Bureau of Mines. Another valuable asset, to which he calls attention, is the bituminous coal area which it is estimated contains thirty-one billion tons. A marvellous industrial future is predicted for our largest State.

The magnetic work accomplished at sea is described by Prof. L. A. Bauer, of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, with

plates and sketch-map, in the *Geographical Journal* for December. Sir Aurel Stein gives an account of the first part of his new expedition in Central Asia. Starting from Kashmir he crossed by fifteen passes, between 10,000 and 17,400 feet in height, an almost unexplored region to Chinese Turkestan. In many places he found extensive ruins showing that a dense population existed in pre-Mohammedan times where now it is an almost uninhabited desert. At one place there were unusually fine irrigation canals of solid stonework. Some rock tombs in Arabia are described with illustrations by Dr. F. G. Clemow, who was sent to this region by the International Board of Health in Constantinople to select the best site on the Hejaz railway for a pilgrims' quarantine station. The recent crossings of Greenland are sketched, with a map, and there are given the addresses of Lord Curzon and the Italian Ambassador at the presentation of medals to the survivors of the Antarctic expedition of Capt. Scott.

As the "Journals of Ralph Waldo Emerson" (Houghton Mifflin) draw to a close, the gleanings per year diminishes. The ninth volume covers a period from 1856 to 1863. Much of the comment is directed to the great public events then crowding one another. Emerson, except in a somewhat condescending attitude towards Lincoln, whom he personally knew, is singularly clear-sighted. Many of his utterances have prophetic weight. The present political confusion in England and America is hit off quite incidentally in the definition of classicism and romanticism. "Republics run into romance when they lose sight of the inner necessity and organism that must be in their laws, and act from whim." Again, in 1856, when men joked about secession, "South Carolina is in earnest. I see the courtesy of the Carolinians, but I know meanwhile that the only reason why they do not plant a cannon before Faneuil Hall and blow Bunker Hill Monument to fragments, as a nuisance, is because they have not the power. They are fast acquiring the power, and if they get it, they will do it." Singularly fine and Emersonian is a reflection on the multiform bereavement that may result from a single death. "When our friends die, we not only lose them, but we lose a great deal of life which in the survivors was related to them." One of the most striking fancies in the journals is this:

Were it not fit subject for a poem, to send a soul to doom in the charge of an angel, and trace the angel's vain attempts to find a hell for it—the assimilating energy of Osman converting every place into the one thing needful, and every hobgoblin into the best company!

Such specimens may hint of the richness of these mature jottings of the sage. It is consistent with his own cult of inconsistency that he should write, "Science has never measured the immense profundity of the Dunce-Power," and less than two years later pen a contemptuous paragraph on the novels of Jane Austen, who surely was among the greatest of antidunces. Only one volume of the journals remains to be published; the whole series casts much new light upon Emerson's genius and should enhance his greatness.

Very few assertive and virile writers on economic and sociological subjects would

care to have their scattered sayings and writings, covering a period of a quarter of a century, gathered together in a single volume in such a way as to facilitate comparison and criticism. Yet this has been done in the latest volume of Professor Sumner's essays, "Earth-Hunger and Other Essays" (Yale University Press), by William Graham Sumner, edited by Albert Galloway Keller. It is a testimony to the real soundness of this great sociologist's views that his reputation suffers not at all thereby. To deny that there are contradictions would be futile, for they abound. But they are such contradictions as mark the truly great thinker, arising from emphasis upon certain points in certain connections rather than from any real inconsistency of belief. Many of these contradictions are of the sort which beset the student whose theory of life minimizes the potency of individual effort to change the operation of the great forces of social development, and yet whose native disposition leads him to make war unceasingly upon those things in society which seem to him wrong, or foolish, or futile. One or two examples will suffice. The first is furnished by what Professor Sumner has to say of ideals. In many passages the author voices his scorn of ideals, and brands their pursuit as socially injurious. Thus in the essay on "Purposes and Consequences" (page 73), he says: "It is a still more positive vice to act from an intention to attain ideals. Ideals are necessarily phantasms. They have no basis in fact." Yet on the second page after, the following sentiment closes this very essay: "At the present moment . . . the thing of the highest importance is the subjection of societal phenomena to scientific investigation, together with the elimination of metaphysics from this entire domain"—an ideal sufficiently grand for the most visionary. And throughout the book Professor Sumner continually advocates certain lines of social conduct which are none the less ideal because of a negative nature. Again, in the essay referred to, he says, "Socialism is not a subject for discussion by serious students of the science of society." Yet a large part of the book is taken up with the discussion, if not of Socialism, at least of Socialistic projects.

The range of topics covered in this volume is so great that to criticize the views advanced would be to tread upon almost every field of sociological controversy. It has been said repeatedly that one of Professor Sumner's great gifts was the ability to make men think. This book will set the reader thinking, and the very points at which the author's views challenge him most boldly will probably be where his thinking is most profitable. Those who have read the earlier volume of essays will find in this new book an even clearer exposition of the basic principles of Professor Sumner's sociological philosophy. The most important ideas which run throughout the majority of these essays are three—the importance of the ratio of men to land in all sociological analyses; the real nature of liberty and freedom, and the limitations of state control over the economic activities. The book affords an ample justification of the confidence of the editor that Professor Sumner's views on matters of this sort deal with perpetual

realities, and are not evanescent but fundamental.

Dr. Preserved Smith, favorably known for his study of "Luther's Table-Talk" (1907) and his "Life and Letters of Martin Luther" (1911), now publishes the first volume of an English translation of "Luther's Correspondence and Other Contemporary Letters" (Philadelphia: The Lutheran Publication Society). This is another contribution to the rapidly increasing literature of selections of original material, a very welcome form of aid to the student as far as it goes, but, precisely in proportion to its volume, tending to confuse by its incompleteness and inevitable duplications. If an English translation of Luther's letters were desirable, it seems rather a pity that Dr. Smith, eminently fitted as he is for the task, should not have tried to make it complete, adding, if necessary, a selection of other letters by way of appendix. It is, for example, likely to prove irritating to the user of this volume to find thirty-seven letters of Luther, mostly to important persons, omitted here because Dr. Smith has already printed translations of them in his biography of Luther. A comparison with the originals shows that the editor has well lived up to his expressed intention to give a true and vivid reproduction of the writer's thought rather than an exact rendering of his language. The style is vigorous and lively, suggesting the force of Luther's own and following cleverly its varying moods. The notes, biographical, historical, and critical, are well-balanced, neither too many nor too few, and are invariably helpful to an understanding of the text. There is a useful index and a list of correspondents which would have been more useful if it had indicated whether a given letter were by or to the person named.

To the welcome reprint of the works of Samuel Butler, of "Erewhon," is added "Alps and Sanctuaries" (Dutton). It is considerably reduced in form from the original in quarto, but retains the old cuts by the author, and becomes more portable as a guide-book. In a brief introduction R. A. Streatfeild gives the circumstances under which the book was written. It is capital Butler in his most festal mood. The descriptions of places and persons are delightful, and the whole is intershot with Butler's peculiar wit and wisdom. Some of the best criticism of modern art education may be here found, but in the main grave issues are in abeyance and we have genial and lucid descriptions of the villages and pilgrimage shrines which are set on the middle slopes of the Italian Alps. A most winning and stimulating classic of the footpath.

In 1906 the trustees of the Illinois State Historical Library appointed a commission, composed of professors of history in the universities and normal schools of the State, to formulate a plan for the publication of the historical sources of Illinois, and to have general supervision over the scholarly work of the department. Shortly afterwards a general editor of the above series was appointed. Previous to this reorganization one volume of historical collections had been published, so that the present work, "Collection of the Illinois State Historical Library, Volume VIII, Virginia Se-

ries, Volume III, George Rogers Clark Papers, 1771-1781," edited with introduction and notes by James Alton James, Springfield, is the seventh volume issued under the new régime. The plan of the advisory commission for the publication of the collections marked a new era in the study of the history of a Western State. Instead of the haphazard methods of publication that had been in vogue up to this time, the Illinois State Historical Library has attempted to have each of its volumes cover a limited period or limited phase of history. The plan is to make such a clean sweep of sources, that the work may never have to be done over. To illustrate the plan, the present volume is the third of the Virginia series, the first two with the sub-titles "Cahokia Records" and "Kaskaskia Records" having been edited by Professor Alvord; a fourth volume will be edited by Professor James and will continue the George Rogers Clark Papers; and a fifth volume will deal with the financial side of the Revolutionary period in Illinois history. These five volumes will contain nearly every known document of importance that illustrates the history of Illinois between the years 1778 and 1790.

It is a pleasure at length to have a correct transcript of the famous letter by Clark to Mason, which contains the former's account of the occupation of the Illinois country, and also of his more important and longer memoir. The date of the latter has been a subject in dispute. Mr. Roosevelt, in his "Winning of the West," asserted that the memoir "was written at the desire of Presidents Jefferson and Madison, and therefore some thirty or forty years after the events of which it speaks. . . . It undoubtedly contains some rather serious errors." Mrs. Minnie Cook was the first to point out, in the *Virginia Magazine of History and Geography*, the error of this late date; and Professor James has concurred with her in fixing the date of the Memoir between 1789 and '91, and in Appendix III he has printed the letters showing the conditions under which it was written. The same care as has been shown in Mason's letter and the Memoir has been shown in the other transcripts that are here published. So far as possible, these have been made directly from the originals in London, Paris, Madison, Washington, Ottawa, and elsewhere. The reviewer wonders, however, why Professor James thought it necessary to publish so many documents that had already appeared in previous volumes of the Illinois Historical Collections. It should seem that for his purposes a reference to these would have been sufficient.

The volume is preceded by an introduction of 167 pages, furnishing the history of the period. It is impossible to give unstinted praise to this part of the work, for it shows carelessness in sentence structure, but particularly a lack of logic in the whole presentation. There are also some things lacking that we should have expected to find. Clarke's expedition to the Illinois was undoubtedly the culmination of efforts by Virginia, sustained through many years, to make good her claims to the West. The fight of the Old Dominion against the attempts of the British Ministry to establish her western boundary from the time of the Proclamation of 1763 to Dunmore's War, are but the predecessors of this last attempt on the part of the seceding colony to

seize the fertile lands. Professor James has not brought out in his introduction this connection of Virginia's past attempts with this successful one. In his mind there seems to be no connection between Dunmore's War and Clark's expedition, and yet they are but phenomena of a similar kind. Again, Clark in his diary under December 3, 1777, writes: "taken in partnership by his Excellency P. Henry in taking a Body of Land." Professor James has made no attempt to explain this partnership, but when one remembers how closely Patrick Henry was connected with the western land schemes of Lord Dunmore, one can but wonder whether Clark's expedition may not have been a continuation of this patriot's efforts to make a fortune. Professor James has followed the usual account of the occupation of Kaskaskia as drawn from Clark's own statements, and yet some doubt has been expressed by previous writers as to whether the conception of the expedition originated in Clark's mind, and as to whether there was so much surprise among the French in Kaskaskia as Clark describes. It was hoped that a careful study of the Clark papers would solve these problems, but the editor has not shown any interest in them whatever.

In spite of these criticisms, the introduction was decidedly worth doing. It is the first attempt to form a scientific interpretation of the Revolutionary War in the West up to the year 1781. Professor James's description of the efforts of Congress to obtain the support of the Western Indians, and to prepare an expedition against Detroit from Fort Pitt, are extremely valuable. He has clearly brought out, also, how Clark long planned to take Detroit, and has given an adequate account of his failure. Finally, the book, particularly the documentary part, is a most important contribution to our knowledge of Western history during this period.

Mr. James Davenport Whelpley would undoubtedly himself be the first to admit the defects inherent in the structure of books such as his "The Trade of the World" (Century). Generalizations respecting races and countries, always dangerous, become doubly so in a rapid-fire and necessarily brief survey, and, possibly, trebly so when this survey has to be made in a succession of more or less symmetrically constructed chapters where the temptation to the maximum use of contrast, antithesis, and epigram is, naturally, almost irresistible. With this general reservation kept clearly in mind, however, the reader will find this book of great interest, and he may have a good deal of confidence in the general truth of the pictures presented by Mr. Whelpley in its pages. The book is eminently one for the reader who wishes to be intelligently informed upon matters which furnish at all times a large part of daily news and daily comment. The general scope of the work is described in the opening pages. "The foreign trade of the world in 1912 amounted to more than \$35,000,000,000. This is the great stake for which the international traders are playing the game this year" (p. 7). It is to illustrate the present position of the players in the "big game" that "The Trade of the World" is written. Separate chapters are devoted to each of the great nations of the world, and each chapter bears evidence of consider-

able thought and a wide knowledge of the essential facts. The style is simple and straightforward, but relieved by many interesting and pertinent phrases and anecdotes which make the book easy and pleasant reading. Particularly is this the case with the chapters on Great Britain, Germany, France, and Belgium, to which the average reader, will doubtless turn with most curiosity. To the reviewer's thinking, however, it is the chapters on Japan, China, and Russia that are the most interesting and informing in the book.

Joseph Cullen Root, who died on Wednesday of last week, aged sixty-nine, was founder and sovereign commander of the Woodmen of the World. He wrote several books on woodcraft and a drama entitled "Consolidation."

The death is reported from Richmond, England, of Edith Emma Cooper, who, in collaboration with her aunt, Miss Bradley, was known as Michael Field. Their publications include: "Callirrhoe and Fair Rosamund," "The Father's Tragedy," "Brutus Ultor," "Canute the Great and the Cup of Water," "Stephanie," "Underneath the Bough," "Long Ago," "The Tragic Mary," "Attila, My Attila!" "Sight and Song," "The World at Auction," "Anna Ruina," "The Race of Leaves," "Julia Domna," "Wild Honey," and "Poems of Adoration," the last almost wholly by Miss Cooper.

Science

A History of Land Mammals in the Western Hemisphere. By W. B. Scott. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$5 net.

This volume marks a new era in palæontological science, and it is not an exaggeration to say that, from the point of view of general evolution, it is the most important single publication of the past year. Remembering the petty personal jealousies of the period of Cope and Marsh, it is refreshing to read Dr. Scott's dedication "to my classmates, Henry Fairfield Osborn and Francis Speir, in memory of a notable summer afternoon in 1876 and in token of forty years' unclouded friendship." In every way it is a worthy successor to Osborn's "Age of Mammals," published three years ago, and while keeping to an equally high plane of scientific worth, both in diction and illustrations, it makes an even stronger appeal to the imagination of the lay reader. The writing is clear, forceful, and devoid of all suggestion of padding. The development of the thesis is logical and takes for granted only fundamental knowledge, but demands keen interest on the part of the reader.

The first two chapters deal with methods of investigation in both geology and palæontology. The next two sketch the classification and the main features of the skeleton and teeth of the mammalia. Then follow the geographical development of the two Americas, the distribution and the succession of their mam-

malian faunas. The remaining two-thirds of the volume deals with the history of the various groups, from the Perissodactyls to the Marsupials. The final chapter treats of modes of mammalian evolution.

Comment is difficult because of the equal excellence of all the chapters. The vast amount of material demanded that a careful selection should be made. A single paragraph, dealing with a classic subject, will serve to show the concise treatment of those fossil forms which are fortunate enough to find a place in Dr. Scott's pages. The characters of the modern horse are sketched, and we are led back through past ages until—

Passing over, for lack of space, the transitional forms of the Wind River, we come finally to the most ancient known horses, the Wasatch species comprised in the genus †*Eohippus*, the "Dawn Horse," as its name signifies; these were little creatures ranging in size from a cat to a small fox. Despite an unmistakably equine look in the skeletons of these diminutive animals, it is only the long intermediate series of species and genera, together forming a closely linked chain, which we have traced from the Pleistocene to the lower Eocene, that leads us to regard †*Eohippus* as the ancestral type of the horses. Were only the two ends of the chain known, he would be a daring speculator who should venture to connect them. In these little Wasatch horses we have the evidence of a still more ancient form with five fully developed toes in each foot, since the front foot had four functional digits and indication of a splint, and splints, as the whole history of the long series teaches, always are found to be functional digits in the ancestor; the hind foot had three toes and perhaps two splints. This preceding form is hardly to be looked for in America or Europe; it will be found, if ever, in the region whence the great migration came. In all other respects, as well, †*Eohippus* was what we should expect the forerunner of the Wind River and Bridger horses to be. The premolars were all smaller and simpler than the molars, and the latter in the upper jaw are particularly interesting, for they had no crests and ridges of enamel, but four principal conical cusps, arranged in two transverse pairs, and between the cusps of each pair was a tiny cuspule no bigger than the head of a pin. These cuspules were the first step in the formation of the transverse crests, which were destined to assume such importance in the subsequent members of the series. The neck was very short, the body long, with curved or arched back, the limbs and feet short, and the hind limb much longer than the fore, making the relative proportions of the various parts of the skeleton very different from what they afterwards became.

With this is a vivid restoration of a quartet of the tiny *Eohippus*, browsing near a fallen tree on which grow fungi nearly as large as themselves.

Following such a "history" of the group *Equus*, we find a numbered summary of characters, seven in this case,

with a pithy résumé of the method of evolution. Thus:

(7.) The feet were much elongated and the median digit of each gradually enlarged until it carried the whole weight, at the same time modifying the shape of the hoof so as to fit it to be the sole support of the body. The other toes gradually dwindled and became functionless, though often retained as splints. The first digit (pollex and hallux) was first lost, then the fifth, then the second and fourth were reduced to dew-claws, and finally to splints. Thus the pentadactyl horses of the lower Eocene were transformed into the monodactyl species of the Pliocene and Pleistocene.

Accompanying these histories, Dr. Scott presents many theories, but with caution. As he says in his preface, "A book of this character is obviously not the proper place for polemical discussions of disputed questions. Whenever, therefore, the views expressed differ widely from those maintained by other palæontologists, I have attempted no more than to state, as fairly as I could, the alternative interpretations and my own choice between them."

One gathers from a perusal of these pages that the author very sanely rejects all extreme theories of evolution, or, indeed, any single postulate with claims to universal application. He inclines decidedly to a monophyletic origin of the mammalia, and to divergence or adaptative radiation as the dominant method, with convergence and parallelism as very important subsidiary processes in the great developmental scheme. One of the most significant tendencies of palæontologists of recent years, induced by many startling parallel and convergent characters, is a hinting at some "internal perfecting principle." Dr. Scott mentions and dismisses this as follows:

So far as we are able to follow it by the aid of the fossils, development among the mammals would appear to be a remarkably direct and unswerving process. When any long-lived phylum, made up of numerous well-preserved members, is studied, the observer cannot fail to be impressed by the straightforward course of the evolutionary process, as though the animals were consciously making for a predetermined goal, which, needless to say, they were not.

Perhaps the most important aspect of the work, as certainly the most original, is that relating to the fossil mammalia of South America. This is Dr. Scott's especial province, which he has been studying for thirteen years. All the interesting results here given are condensed from his eight volumes, relating to the Princeton Patagonian expeditions. The apparent continental isolation of these forms is quite inexplicable, and one looks confidently to the demolishing of this barrier by the discovery of extra-neotropical representatives.

In view of the tremendous field covered and the myriad facts which are detailed, the text is remarkably free from

error. The few that are most noticeable relate, curiously enough, to the two extremes of the class, mankind, and marsupials and Prototheria. The specific name of *Ornithorhynchus* is no longer the time-worn *paradoxus*, but *anatinus*. On page 86 the author has failed to say that the patella is absent in most marsupials, and that in those same animals the bones of the lower leg have a decided power of rotation. A few lines farther, on the same page, the statement that "the upper end of the tibia is enlarged and extends over that of the fibula" should be amended. In *Ornithorhynchus* the fibula is much longer than the tibia, and in marsupials slightly longer. In monotremes, marsupials, and a number of higher forms the tibia does not extend over the upper end of the fibula.

Why the small *Otocyon* is called a wolf is not apparent. Fox would be more correct, and the statement that its molar formula of $\frac{3}{4}$ exceeds that of any other placental mammal is untrue, since dolphins, manatees, and some edentates have a much larger number.

A glossary of nine pages is a very valuable asset to this volume, but a few of the definitions are rather loose. The auditory meatus can hardly be defined as the entrance to the bulla, when man has no bulla. The centrum is only a portion of the body of a vertebra, and again the mastoid process is probably confused with the styloid process, as the former is never "spine-like." The slips in relation to the physical make-up of man are perhaps a result of the omission of the discussion of mankind in the Western Hemisphere, although no definite dismissal of this subject is implied. In the brief mention of the various types of fossil skulls, on page 588, no mention is made of *Pithecanthropus*. The use of the word "Klipdases" as a popular plural term for the Hyracoidea is hardly correct. In South African Dutch, *Das* is a badger, while the only English equivalent for the plural would be *Dasses*.

The outline drawings are excellent, with the exception of a few, such as that on page 310, which is as bewildering to the eye as the optical illusion of the pyramid of inverted cubes. The restorations are one of the most interesting features of the book. Made under the personal supervision of Dr. Scott, they are, on the whole, as accurate as we can expect, the markings and patterns being, of course, wholly hypothetical. A great many beautiful photographs from the collections of the New York Zoölogical Society add to the comparative value of these restorations. Every name mentioned in the text, both common and scientific, is indicated as living or fossil, by the absence or presence of a dagger. The index is admirable; the paper is necessarily coated and heavy, while the general make-up is in

keeping with the high excellence and permanent value of the contents.

John Phin, who came to the United States from Scotland in 1851, and for a number of years was a professor in the Pennsylvania Agricultural College, died Monday, aged eighty-four. Besides a "Shakespeare Cyclopædia," he was the author of several works on applied science, such as "How to Use the Microscope," "Useful and Precious Minerals," etc.

Drama

"The Romance of the American Theatre" (Little, Brown), by Mary Caroline Crawford, is a book largely made up of assorted extracts from earlier publications. Many of these, clipped from recognized authorities, are excellent in their way; others are of doubtful value, while some are utterly trivial or worthless. All are perfectly familiar to persons moderately conversant with theatrical affairs in this country, with the exception, perhaps, of some of the quotations from old newspapers. The original matter, relating chiefly to modern times, cannot be commended for accuracy, completeness, proportion, or judgment. In the first half of the book, which deals with the early days of the theatre in the South, the Puritanical opposition to it in New England, the experiences of travelling "stars," and the first play houses in New York, many interesting details are conveniently collected for the casual reader. For the student they are insufficient and might be misleading. Most of the sketches of noted players are hopelessly inadequate, not only in the presentment of fact, but in the almost total lack of anything like comparative criticism. Even in the cases of such prominent and comparatively modern stage figures as Edwin Forrest, Macready, the elder and the younger Booth, Rachel, Charles Fechter, Charlotte Cushman, Helena Modjeska, Salvini, Joseph Jefferson, John McCullough, and John Gilbert—many others of almost equal celebrity might be named—no reference is made to some of their most famous impersonations, or to their distinguishing characteristics as actors. Considering the existent mass of anecdotal, descriptive, and critical ready reference to all these players, it is amazing that the author, in compiling a quasi-historical account of the American Theatre, should have ignored entirely the most pertinent parts of it, and contented herself, as she seems to have done for the most part, with a haphazard use of the paste-pot and scissors. Her treatment of the contemporaneous stage is equally superficial and unsatisfactory. She writes glibly and dogmatically, but without any show of intimate knowledge, personal experience, or discrimination. Her closing assertion that the present condition of the theatre is highly encouraging is tolerably good proof of this. The book is liberally and well illustrated.

The first performance in this country of Bernard Shaw's "The Philanderer," in the Little Theatre, is a notable incident, chiefly on account of the excellence of the acting. The company, specially imported by Win-

throp Ames, had been selected and drilled in London by Granville Barker, under the supervision of the author himself. It may be presumed, therefore, that the representation gives adequate expression to Mr. Shaw's intent, and beyond question it is admirably artistic in its smoothness, finish, and nicety of proportion, and especially in its freedom from exaggeration. The play, although it shows signs of age in the selection of such topics as the early Ibsenian enthusiasts and Amazonian women, is a characteristic Shavian product and a fertile source of entertainment, although devoid of any real dramatic impulse or significance. Professedly it is a demonstration of the grotesque relations caused by the matrimonial conventions of its period, but actually the "grotesque conditions" and their consequences are alike arbitrary creations of the dramatist's fancy. The adventures of the philandering hero, in his simultaneous pursuit of the experienced and sharp-witted widow, Grace Tranfield, and the emotional conventional woman, Julia Craven, are devised simply with the view of giving Mr. Shaw vantage ground for the launching of his witty sallies—sardonic, cynical, or gay—at the various old-fashioned institutions, sentiments, or prejudices of which he is the declared foe. Not only matrimony, but the army, the church, and the medical profession, the home, paternal or filial affection, mid-Victorian sentiment, dramatic criticism, and other things are the targets for his assault. And his shafts are often winged with humorous fancy and barbed with sharpest wit. It is this piquant dialogue which gives the play its chief theatrical value, and it was delivered with delightful point—without the least trace of conscious emphasis—at the Little Theatre. Throughout the performance the tribute of laughter was frequent, but there were intervals when the continual flow of cynical wit, all in the same vein, palled by its manifest insincerity. Indeed, an audience which knew not Shaw—if such ignorance were possible—might easily be puzzled as to the author's real views on any of the subjects he discusses. It is easy to understand why "The Philanderer" has remained unacted for so long. Only such a company as has now been assembled could disguise its dramatic inconsequence and feebleness. The chief performers are Charles Maude, Ernita Lascelles, Mary Lawton, W. R. Staveley, Reginald Dance, and Reginald Besant, and they all do so well that it would be unjust to discriminate among them.

It is probable that his success with "The Case of Becky"—which, it will be remembered, was a professed study of compound personality—induced Mr. Belasco to try a second experiment in the same direction with "The Secret," the latest play of Henri Bernstein, which virtually deals with the same subject, although it dispenses with the theatrical hocus-pocus of mesmeric influence. In both cases the heroine is represented as the victim of abnormal and irreconcilable impulses which give her two distinct individualities, and thus provide tempting opportunities to histrionic versatility. The American play was founded upon a scientific medical report, to whose theories it assumed to give practical illustration, but the French work is wholly

imaginary and stultifies its profession of serious psychological analysis by its extravagance and obvious insincerity. Manifestly, Mr. Bernstein selected his subject mainly on account of the emotional situations to be manufactured out of it. And in this respect he has shown his usual ingenuity. It is unnecessary to go into the details of his plot, which is as improbable in its premises as it is conventional and unreal in its final issue. His heroine is a woman who would have been an angel if she had not been a demon. She is pictured as a creature seemingly possessed of all the feminine graces and virtues, accomplished, generous, affectionate, for ten years a happy and devoted wife, but, nevertheless, dominated by a malignant spirit of jealousy which makes the spectacle of another's happiness intolerable to her. The theatricality of such a conception is evident. She intrigues against her most intimate friend, her sister-in-law, separating her from her first lover, and afterwards betraying her secret to the second, who has married her. In effecting her purpose, she involves the whole family group in one common misery and dishonor, bringing about a complete domestic tragedy. Incidentally she is compelled to confess her own guilt, thus becoming the object of general abhorrence. The remarkable technical cleverness displayed by Mr. Bernstein in reaching his catastrophe, or the theatrical efficacy of his situations, need not be disputed. And his play, if it had closed with the exposure, might have been credited with a certain measure of sincerity and logic. But he demonstrates the commercial object of his work by devising a comparatively happy ending which reduces the whole thing to ordinary melodrama. Frances Starr, as the heroine, proved unequal to the intellectual and emotional demands of a part written for that subtle and powerful actress, Madame Simone, and the interpretation, admirable in most respects, was weakened by her deficiency in the crises.

Frank Curzon has obtained the English rights of the new Parisian farce, "Les Deux Canards," by Tristan Bernard and Alfred Athys, produced recently at the Palais Royal. Probably he designs it for the use of Gerald du Maurier, as the dual hero, who, under different names, controls two newspapers constantly at war with each other.

Sir Herbert Tree has decided to revive "The Darling of the Gods" at His Majesty's Theatre in London.

The repertory season of Lillah McCarthy and Granville Barker at the St. James's Theatre, in London, was so successful that it was extended from three weeks to a month.

Sir Charles Wyndham and Mary Moore have just been acting again in "David Garrick" for the benefit of the Actors' Benevolent Fund.

Jules-Arsène-Arnaud Claretie, whose death at the age of seventy-four was reported last week from Paris, had for half a century occupied a prominent place in the list of France's literary men. His earliest work was done on such satirical papers as *Le Nain Jaune* and *Diogène*, which were strongly anti-Bonapartist. In 1868 M. Claretie, writing in the *Figaro* under the

signature of "Candide," showed courage by denouncing the execution of Martin Bidaure; for this he and his paper were fiercely persecuted. In the war of 1870 he followed the Army of the Rhine and acted as correspondent of the *Rappel* and *L'Opinion Rationale*. He then became attached to *Le Temps*, and for many years his *causerie* was one of its distinguished features. When Emile Perrin died, Claretie was selected to succeed him as director of the *Comédie Française*. Three years later, in 1888, he was elected a member of the French Academy and was "received" by Renan. Under his rule at the *Française*, from which he resigned the past year, the famous company retained its ancient prestige in spite of the occasional defection of such eminent players as Coquelin, Bernhardt, and others. His rejection of certain plays, at various times, on political and other grounds, led to some severe criticism of his policy, but in all crises of this sort, whether the struggle was in the courts, the press, or his own society, he displayed both tact and resolution. His written works include, in drama: "Les Muscadins," "Les Ingrats," "Raymond Lindey," "Le Régiment de Champagne," "Les Mirabeau," "Monsieur le Ministre," "Le Prince Zilah," "Le Père," and "La Navarraise." History: "Les Derniers Montagnards," "Le Champ de bataille de Sedan," "Paris assiégé," "La Guerre nationale," "Camille et Lucile Desmoulins," and "Histoire de la Révolution en 1870-1871." In addition he wrote "La Fontaine et Lamartine," "Béranger," and "Molière."

Music

Great Pianists on Piano Playing. By James Francis Cooke. Philadelphia: Theo. Presser Co.

How the Piano Came to Be. By Ellye Howell Glover. Chicago: Browne & Howell Co. 50 cents net.

First Studies for the Piano. By Rafael Joseffy. New York: G. Schirmer. \$2 net.

Not a few of the world's greatest pianists were and are persons of exceptional intellectual gifts—thinkers and wits as well as players. James Francis Cooke, editor of the *Etude*, has known some thirty of them, and with eighteen he has had talks on their art. These "study talks," as he calls them, make a book of exceptional value to students and teachers. His list includes three women: Fannie Bloomfield-Zeisler, Teresa Carreño, Katharine Goodson; and fifteen men: Bachaus, Bauer, Busoni, Gabilowitsch, Godowski, Hofmann, Lhévinne, de Pachmann, Pauer, Rachmaninoff, Reisenauer, Sauer, Scharwenka, Schelling, and Stojowski, besides the boy prodigy, Pepito Arriola. Each of them contributes food for thought; on one point they all seem to agree—that the persistent playing of Bach is the surest way to true musicianship.

Harold Bauer warns against using Bach merely as "a kind of technical elevator," using the word technical in the common sense. Mr. Godowski, whom the critics have accused of being a mere master of technique, maintains that technique "has properly to do with the intellectual phase of the subject rather than the physical"; that it includes rhythm, tempo, accent, phrasing, dynamics, agogics, touch, etc.; and that it thus differs from the mere "mechanics" of playing. But it would create no end of confusion to accept this distinction. The conception of technique as that which relates to the mechanical part of a performance has become universally accepted by musicians and will remain in use, even though it be less flattering to Mr. Godowski than his own suggested amendment. His ideas on touch also differ from those of some of the other pianists represented in this volume; but in this case his views are more acceptable, even though Ossip Gabrilowitsch, *e. g.*, attains surprisingly good results in other ways.

Mrs. Bloomfield-Zeissler utters a protest against the exploiting of wonder-children. She gives a brief but admirable summary of Leschetizky's way of teaching, talks suggestively about programme-making, the art of hypnotizing an audience, and explains the secrets of successful appearance in public. Mme. Carreño repeats the advice Liszt gave her, not to imitate any one but to cultivate one's individuality, and she illustrates the importance of this with reference to the career of her pupil, Edward MacDowell. Her remarks on the importance of the study of musical history are also worth noting by students. Mme. Goodson warns against the wasting of time and money in sending beginners to famous artists. She, also, is a pupil of Leschetizky, and has interesting things to tell about his ways of making his pupils musical. If one of them, for example, had difficulty with rhythm, he advised her to go and hear Strauss, the king of rhythm and dance.

Wilhelm Bachaus discourses specially on two great musicians. One of them is Bach, the other Rachmaninoff, whom he considers "the giant of today." In his opinion, he is "writing the greatest original music for piano of any living composer." He is also very partial to Debussy, whom he admires because he "manages to put so much color into his piano pieces without suggesting the orchestra. Much of his music is wonderful in this respect, and, moreover, the musicians of the future will appreciate this fact more and more." Mr. Lhévinne discusses the musical situation in Russia, and Josef Hofmann expresses his conviction that there has been no progress in piano playing since the time of Liszt.

Besides recording the opinions of prominent pianists in diverse aspects of their art, Mr. Cooke contributes two valuable chapters of his own, in which he discusses, among other things, the advantages of domestic life over that of a virtuoso, and the special disadvantages to which players are subjected in this land of magnificent distances. In the case of some prominent artists the managers have the greatest difficulty in inducing them to come more than once. Rubinstein declined \$100,000 and Grieg made prohibitive conditions. On the magic of magnetism, as illustrated by Paderewski, Mr. Cooke has some suggestive pages. Of special interest is his explanation of the reason why American students are apt to make more progress in Europe than at home. It is because over there the same students willingly subject themselves to strict discipline, against which they rebel at home. Thus has come about the curious situation that "teachers who have taught for years in America have returned to Europe, doubled and quadrupled their fees, and, under Old World surroundings and with more rigid standards of artistic work, have produced results they declare would have been impossible in America."

"How the Piano Came to Be" is a booklet of sixty pages, in which the history of the piano is traced from its supposed germs in the sinews stretched across the shell of a dead tortoise to the modern American grand. It is not a mere compilation from the dictionaries, but contains evidence of wide reading, with entertaining details. One of these is the odd fact that a century ago a Boston maker of pianos had to put a false English or French stamp on them before he could sell them. There are pictures illustrating the evolution of the clavichord and harpsichord into the pianoforte.

Some years ago the Schirmers published a "School of Advanced Piano Playing" by the greatest of foreign pianists and teachers who have made their home in America, Rafael Joseffy. This is now followed by "First Studies for the Piano" by the same authority. The text and the footnotes are printed in both English and German. "First studies" must not be taken too literally; it is not a book for pupils who still have to learn their a, b, c, but for those who have had some experience and can use their own brains. For these, the book is invaluable. Among the many things considered are varieties of touch, rhythm, eye-training, accompaniment figures for the left hand, scales in thirds and sixths and in chromatics.

For the first time in its history of more than a century the Philharmonic Society of London gave, a few weeks ago, a concert with an "all-British programme." Sad to

relate, it "fell flat." The composers represented were not those best known; they were Frederick Austin, Von Holst, Vaughn, Williams, and Arnold Box.

At the Berlin High School of Music Prof. Georg Schumann has been appointed teacher of composition to succeed the veteran Max Bruch.

There are two things in particular that impede the progress of opera in English: the scarcity of acceptable singers and the inability of most of them to enunciate distinctly, which seems to be a growing infirmity. At any rate, Robin H. Legge makes some remarks on this point in the London *Daily Telegraph* which are worth pondering:

A number of correspondents write to point out that the diction of opera singers in English was at its highest point of excellence in the great days of the Savoy operas. It certainly was then very high. Those who are interested in the matter may hear for themselves if the Savoy tradition is still upheld by attending the various performances of the Gilbert and Sullivan operas during this week at the Crystal Palace. As a matter of fact, the now common complaint as to the difficulty of hearing the sung words when the operatic singer is English is, I think, quite a modern matter. I have no recollection of it in my early days.

Art

THE NEW ENGLISH ART CLUB.

LONDON, December 22, 1913.

The New English Art Club has just opened its fiftieth exhibition. When it opened its first, it represented all that was most advanced—according to British standards—all that was most independent, most revolutionary among British artists. It flaunted its opposition to the Academy and the Academic. The little inner group, its chief strength, went so far as to call themselves London Impressionists at a time when London still shrank from the scandal of French Impressionism. At its shows the younger generation was heard knocking at the door, in the Ibsen phrase then in everybody's mouth—powder was smelt, as a Frenchman said to me one day at one of its early press views. In its members' hands, everybody thought, lay the future of art in England; it was a society full of promise. And now that it has lived long enough for that promise to be fulfilled, now that with the round and imposing number of fifty exhibitions to its credit, it seems as if the time had come to reckon up its achievements: what does it represent, what does it stand for?

To tell the truth, it stands for little save the ease with which middle age shakes off the ambitions and hopes of youth. The powder is all but spent, the new younger generation knocks louder from without its fold than from within. Of the older generation some are dead, some have ceased to exhibit on its walls,

some have been gathered into the Academy. Wilson Steer remains, from the beginning the most faithful. He has seldom contributed to other exhibitions, he has always reserved his best for the New English, and, in consequence, has made a much more distinct impression on the public than those members who have scattered their work in many exhibitions; and it is reported—with how much truth I cannot say—that the Club at last recognizes the wisdom of his policy and proposes passing in self-defence a law to prevent members from showing anywhere save with their own society.

This year even Steer can scarcely redeem the New English from the commonplace into which it is drifting. He sends two paintings: one, a rather garish Sunset over a broad space of water full of shipping, a conscientious, painstaking statement of facts without the selection that would give them artistic value, so that it becomes a question whether the restless and chromo-like effect—the foolish sunset—Nature sometimes indulges in is worth recording at all; the other, a Breakwater stretching out an unlovely line into an empty gray stretch of water under an empty gray stretch of sky; both suggesting the weariness of the painter who, rather than continue wrestling with problems, is content to state his facts as he finds them. Indeed, signs of weariness betray themselves on every side among the older men. Prof. Fred Brown and Henry Tonks have only water-colors, and these might pass unnoticed at Burlington House. David Muirhead is gradually reducing his landscapes to a formula, and forgetting his sense of color in the process. Ambrose McEvoy's portraits are so invertebrate, so without flesh and blood and muscle to give them life, that you feel as if with the first puff of wind his sitters must blow away. Altogether, this group of painters—long since exalted into the great modern leaders by the Slade School, with which most of them are associated—now they have reached the age when they should be in the fullness of their powers, appear to have lost grip, to have come to the end of a convention that could produce agreeable results while it was fresh, and not yet staled by repetition, but that, like all conventions, cannot take the place of the sound knowledge, unwearied study and research, and continual experiment of the true master, and must, sooner or later, lead to feebleness and anæmia. This is the trouble with so many men who start out brilliantly—far more brilliantly, many of them, than the founders of the New English Art Club—and from whom much is expected, but who, with success, become content to reëcho themselves or the masters whom they follow—at a distance.

If the older men are disappointing, little more can be said for the men who, when elected some few years since, were relied upon to infuse new life and vitality into the Club. John is still a name to conjure by, but he still seems satisfied to justify his reputation by his projects rather than his performance. His chief work at the New English is a large cartoon, *The Flute of Pan*, a design apparently for an important mural decoration, and perhaps it would be fair to reserve a final judgment until it is finished and in place. In its present stage nothing is more obvious than the influence of the old masters. Against a rocky background which recalls Leonardo and his school, figures are grouped: to one side, three women reminiscent of Botticelli and the Florentines; to the other, men whose presence is scarcely explained since, in type and treatment, they seem born of Post-Impressionism; in one corner, a boy who is evidently John's own invention. This inconsistency, this incongruity, in detail might pass had the artist, after borrowing so much from the old Italians, gone further and appropriated the great essential of fine decoration which it is so well within their power to have furnished him. For these Italians had, above all, the sense of design which does not seem ever to enter into John's scheme of things; they understood the imperative value of composition and never sacrificed it to detail. Their figures and landscapes, however beautiful in themselves, are always subordinated to the beauty of the design as a whole—are but beautiful parts of a beautiful harmony. The figures and landscape in John's cartoon have no relation to each other, are not bound together by any rhythm of lines or any relation of spaces. John, as far as I have seen him in his work, is much where he was when, as a student, a few drawings made his name a fetish for the worshippers at the shrine of the New English Art Club. The drawings were said to be guarantees of masterpieces to come. And yet to-day one looks in vain for the masterpiece in this large, ambitious work, while the notes and studies hanging in another room have the same skill of draughtsmanship as in the old days when his every drawing was hailed as a guarantee of his triumphant future. The fault of his big design is emphasized by the contrast with the cartoons of Mrs. Sargent Florence, whose reputation cannot be compared to his, but who has studied the old masters of decoration with greater sympathy and intelligence. Her cartoons are for frescoes to decorate the school-hall at Bournville, the Cadburys' model workmen's village, and the subjects are *Suffer the Little Children* and *The Baptism*. In both, the groups are well balanced, the spaces harmoniously distributed, the

lines expressive, with the result that the design tells in the working drawing, as it must eventually if the color scheme is as carefully studied.

Orpen, who became a member of the society about the same time as John, is the more distinguished painter of the two, though this year his only painting strikes one as a piece of sheer bravado—a puzzle intended to bewilder the public and trip up the critic. *Sowing the Seed* is the title, and those who love a story in paint may make what they will of the nude figure that, to the left of the canvas, sows the seed, the two purely grotesque figures of a man and a woman that, to the right, stand under a branch of a withered tree where a magpie perches, and the two little naked children who, with their reflections in a little pool, are the centre of the composition. But if these figures are deliberately provocative in their grotesqueness on the one hand, and their inappropriateness on the other, the canvas has the unity that John's cartoon lacks, the harmony, the balance in the placing of the figures that holds the composition together, making a fine decorative design against the cool gray of the flat background; and there is the quality Orpen almost always gives to his paint. Its self-conscious eccentricity, however, is irritating, and he is seen to better advantage in two large, simple water-colors that hang near John's drawings. In fact, both artists are most successful in their least important exhibits—one cannot help a sneaking suspicion that Orpen is ready to let the New English play second fiddle to the Academy, and to hold back his more serious paintings for the more popular institution. Certainly, neither shows anything to lend special distinction to so important an event as the fiftieth exhibition of a society supposed to represent the most distinguished and independent group of artists in the country.

If the New English in its fiftieth exhibition were positively bad, it would be to me less depressing. The regret is to see it falling into a rut where it is losing even the courage of its own traditions. For this reason I find more vitality in a respectable body like the old Water-Color Society that never dreamed of revolt in the beginning, does not now, and never will, and in its unshakable fidelity to its highly respectable, peaceful, and mediocre ideals, gives an impression of stability, permanence, like the Tower of London or Madame Tussaud's. But the New English was created for revolt, for opposition; there was no other reason or excuse for its existence. And it has long ceased to revolt, it is as academic in one way as the Academy in another.

In the late nineties, the International Society was formed as the most formidable rival the Academy ever had to fear,

the nucleus of every new movement and phase, not only in England, but on the Continent, though the International, year by year, is shutting its door upon the all-important, the international, element that gave it its name, with the result that it also is losing its original vigor. Rumors are about of the formation of another new society of the younger men, who think they have as little hope of adequate representation in the International as the New English. This means a further splitting up into groups and the consequent strengthening once more of the Academy which has triumphed again and again over the independents, partly by absorbing them, partly by ignoring them. Had the New English followed the more practical policy of uniting under its protection all the independents, all the protesting bodies, instead of degenerating into little more than an exhibiting society for the Slade School, it might have proved invincible. But it has narrowed its scope and interests until the question is whether it can get the better of its present inertia and survive a younger and more energetic society as successfully as the Academy has, up till now, survived every secession and rival institution.

N. N.

Among the twenty plates of rare works of art published in the last number of the *Archiv für Kunstgeschichte* (Leipzig: Seemann) the most remarkable are a Goya aquatint of monkeys, a Madonna by Neroccio, a portrait drawing by Montagna, a splendid Tiepolo, the Miracle of the Manna from the Church of Verolanuova; a Nattier portrait, a Tintoretto Annunciation, a French primitive from the Fogg Museum, two delightful sheets of landscape sketches by Hans Baldung Grien, a very fantastic Cranach—the Mass of St. Gregory. An especially interesting feature is the reconstruction on one plate of a very fine Gaudenzio Ferrari triptych, of which the parts are scattered among Leipzig, Milan, and Moscow. There are also minor drawings and sculptures by early German masters. Most are chosen from little-known private collections, and in a few instances from public museums or dealers' stocks.

Hugh Arnold's "Stained Glass of the Middle Ages in England and France" (Macmillan) is the best popular work on the subject that has come to our notice. Mr. Arnold's descriptive and historical chapters are sober, accurate, and interesting. The especial superiority of the book lies, however, in Lawrence B. Saint's water-color sketches. There are fifty color plates after famous windows. Frequently a single plate contains a composition sketch and a group of significant details. Mr. Saint's water-color memoranda give the effect of stained glass better than photographs and the older colored lithographs. For minute information the student must go to the older sources, but it is surprising how much Mr. Saint has managed to convey in sketches apparently slight. For a person of antiquarian taste it would be hard to imagine a more acceptable gift.

Finance

RETROSPECT.

In glancing back over the past twelve-month and endeavoring to determine what it has really signified in American finance, account must first be taken of the noteworthy governing influences under the sway of which the year began. On January 1, 1913, every intelligent observer knew that there were three distinct influences of the sort at work; whose actual results it was impossible to measure in advance; whose operation, in our financial markets, was certain to be conflicting, and whose concurrence left the question entirely open, which would actually play the greatest part in shaping the history of the year.

One of these dominant influences was the European money market crisis, brought to a head by the Balkan War and emphasized by dread of a general conflict and by resultant money-hoarding throughout Europe. Another, very different in its nature, was the enormously profitable crops harvested in this country towards the close of 1912, and marketed during the early part of 1913. The third influence was the new Administration and the new Congress.

It is because of the perplexing and frequently unexpected manner in which these influences have operated, and because of the fact that some movements on the markets could logically be ascribed to either of two causes in the above summary, that Wall Street has found so confusing the current explanations of the year's finance. At one time, Wall Street would learn that business was prosperous; in the next day or month, that the country was face to face with panic.

When our security markets were breaking, in the spring, one group of experts would point out that frightened forced liquidation by American investors was in progress; another, that Europe was raising money in New York, which the foreign bankers rightly regarded as the only stable market of the world, by selling its own investment holdings. When we sent gold in unprecedented sums, to France in the spring and to Canada in the autumn, people would be informed on the one hand that capital was taking flight from America because of its dread as to what might be done at Washington. Yet, on the other hand, they would hear that our own financial position was so strong that we were helping the Bank of France to restore its gold reserve, and assuming London's obligations at Montreal—both in spite of a foreign exchange market really in our favor.

The truth is, that all three influences have had at least some bearing in every important financial movement of the year. The American stock market, for

instance, was beyond any question primarily depressed by the reaction on us of Europe's financial troubles. But the resultant break would certainly have been far severer, had it not been for the sound position and abundant resources carried over from the great harvests of 1912—in sequence also to a period of prolonged retrenchment and economy. And yet again, after this foreign pressure had relaxed, the Continent's political fright abated, and the great European banks regained a strong position, our own recovery would presumably have been far more rapid, but for the third and important element of political misgiving.

Taken as a whole, and with all the adverse influences, real or imaginary, kept in mind, the past year in the United States has been marked by an astonishing show of financial and economic strength. We have absorbed (as we did under similar circumstances in 1900) enormous quantities of the European holdings of our own securities. We passed through the spring with the European market closed to our own new stock and bond issues; through the summer with a minimum of financial assistance by Lombard Street to move our crops, and through the autumn without the slightest suggestion of London's relieving our "autumn money squeeze" or financing a Wall Street "boom in stocks." Instead of this, it has been America which was helping out Europe, directly or indirectly, from the 1st of January to the 31st of December.

Gratifying to our financial pride as this may be, it nevertheless has another side. The man who spends a year drawing on his personal resources to help out an embarrassed neighbor, is likely to be forced to retrenchment on his own account, and the market which takes care of the liquidated securities of another, and sends gold in return, has a similar experience to undergo. A point is sometimes reached where even a strong and powerful market will be crushed by such a process. Our own was not; but it had to accept the alternative of a distressing lack of capital to spare for its own new enterprises, and of a Stock Exchange year so dull as to amount at times to suspension of business.

All these considerations add exceptional interest to the change in the aspect of the markets in the last weeks of the year. That this change should have been ascribed unanimously to the removal of the one adverse influence which had prevailed without intermission until then—the acute misgiving as to sweeping hostile legislation against capital—gives a singular balance to the year, which began with every one pointing to Europe as the one cause for our troubles, which presently saw that influence offset by our own material pros-

perity, and which finally found Wall Street pivoting everything on politics.

As to which of these three considerations had actually the most important part in shaping the history of our markets, it is still too early to decide. Possibly it will require the lapse of another year or two—as it did after 1900 and 1904 and 1906 and 1909—before all will agree as to what was the real controlling financial influence in the year now ended.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Archiv für Kunstgeschichte. Herausgegeben von Detlev von Hadeln, Hermann Voss, und Morton Bernath. II. Lieferung. Leipzig: E. A. Seemann.
- Baldwin, J. F. The King's Council in England during the Middle Ages. Oxford University Press.
- Bigg, Charles. The Christian Platonists of Alexandria. Second edition. Oxford University Press.
- Boppe, A. L'Albanie et Napoleon (1797-1814). Paris: Hachette.
- Brunner, Karl. Der Mittelenglische Versroman über Richard Löwenherz. Vienna: Braumüller.

- Bryce, James. Promoting Good Citizenship. (Riverside Essays.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 35 cents.
- Caldwell, William. Pragmatism and Idealism. London: Macmillan. \$2.
- Duckitt, M., and Wragg, H. Selected English Letters—XV-XIX Centuries. (World's Classics.) Oxford University Press.
- Edwards, M. B. The Lord of the Harvest. (World's Classics.) Oxford University Press.
- Harvard College, Annals of the Astronomical Observatory. Vol. 78, Part 1, Variable Stars in the Cluster Messier, by S. I. Bailey. Cambridge: Observatory.
- Hythe, Viscount. Problems of Empire. New edition. Longmans. \$1.75. net.

Arabian Nights. The Arabian

* nights' entertainments, based on a translation from the Arabic by Edward William Lane; selected ed., and arranged for young people by Frances Jenkins Olcott. 1913. 294 pp., illus. \$1.50 net.

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